BASIC CONVERSATION: THE DEVELOPMENT OF A DIDACTIC CORPUS OF SPOKEN ENGLISH FOR SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNERS

vorgelegt von

STEPHEN SPEIGHT

als Dissertation
zur Erlangung des Grades eines
Doktors der Erziehungswissenschaften (Dr. paed.)
vom Promotionsausschuß der Abteilungen 12 - 16
der Universität Dortmund
für das Fach Didaktik der englischen Sprache
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1983

1. Gutachter: Prof. Dr. H. Heuer
2. Gutachter: Prof. Dr. H. Sauer

Tag der mündlichen Prüfung: 9. Januar 1984

FOR MY FAMILY

I would like to thank all the friends, colleagues and students who helped me to check and polish the foundation dialogues. My thanks also to my "Doktorvater", Helmut Heuer, to whose learning I owe a great deal.

Arnsberg, December 1983

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1. Introductory

This study is concerned with the selection of English lexical and structural material for use in German schools. As a great deal of time and energy is expended on English as a second language, it is obviously very important that this energy is not wasted on learning unsuitable material, and conversely, that everything which is essential is included. Personal experience as a textbook author and teaching practice supervisor over the past decade have led to the firm conviction that this ideal state of affairs has not yet been achieved.

The apparently simple question, "What is the best choice of language for second language learners in school?" raises implications across the whole field of ESL studies.

It is necessary first of all to limit and define the group of learners for whom an attempt will be made to select language material. The focus here is on ordinary learners in first English courses in German schools. Advanced learners, slow learners, and learners with special interests have been deliberately excluded. All pupils in the lower forms of German secondary schools are therefore considered as ordinary learners for the purposes of this study, except for the group of learners with severe problems which is generally agreed to exist in the Hauptschule.

The time dimension is left open. It is assumed that all ordinary learners require the same "common core" of English (COUNCIL of EUROPE (ed.), 1973:13, JOHNSON, 1978:31-2), but not, of course, that all will master this common core in the same time. Attempting to define a common core for German learners is the central objective of this study.

The concept of a best choice of language for this common core can only exist in connection with a purpose for which it is assumed the material will be required. The language which the learner needs for this purpose is his learner target language ("Lernzielsprache", HEUER, 1978, 1980). In this study, the objective is taken to be the ability to carry on a simple conversation in everyday situations. The terminology used in this formulation is discussed in

1.2 below. The past and present role of conversation as an objective for German learners of English is discussed in Chapter 2.

1.1 The curriculum

The decision to concentrate almost exclusively on a single objective requires explanation at the outset. Modern official syllabuses in Germany ("Lehrpläne" or "Richtlinien") give a much more balanced spectrum of objectives. The relevant passages from the "Richtlinien" for English in the first five years at grammar schools ("Gymnasien") in North Rhine - Westphalia are quoted as a typical example:

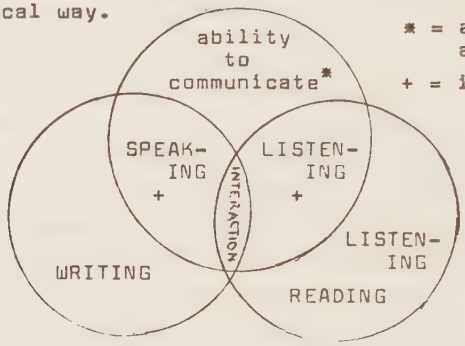
> "0.1.2.1
> Fachliches Lernziel des Unterrichts im Fach Englisch in den Jahrgangsstufen 5 bis 10 ist ... die Fähigkeit des Schülers zur Teilnahme an Kommunikationsprozessen in der englischen Sprache.
> ...
> 0.1.2.3
> Aus den Erfordernissen des Kommunikationsprozesses lassen sich im einzelnen folgende Lernziele ableiten.
>
> a) Der Erwerb sprachlicher Fertigkeiten umfaßt
> - Fertigkeiten im Bereich des Hörens und Lesens (des Verstehens)
> - Fertigkeiten im Bereich des Sprechens und Schreibens (der Äußerung)
> - Fertigkeiten im Bereich der Interaktion.
>
> (KULTUSMINISTER NRW. (ed.), 1978:18)
>
> (The following section on the treatment of texts is omitted as applying more in Gymnasien than in the other school forms.)

The parallel Richtlinien for the "Hauptschule" place speaking above writing, and understanding spoken speech above producing it. Those for the "Realschule" treat receptive and productive competence as of roughly equal importance.

The model advocated here differs from the "Richtlinien" quoted above in three important respects:

1. The overriding objective "ability to take part in communication processes" is equated with the ability to take part in a conversation, i.e. the ability to take part in spoken interaction. Communication between different cultures is only implied to the extent that the ability to use

another language makes contacts with representatives of the target culture far easier (see also 4.5.5 and 8.2). It also treats the other objectives in a more obviously integrated and hierarchical way.



In this model, the activities outside the central circle are seen as complementing the skills inside it, not as important objectives in their own right at this stage.

2. A clear division of responsibility is proposed. Between the full range of the English language and the actual choice of lexical items and structures presented to a particular target group of learners, there will always be a complex selection process involving a number of "filters". It would be beyond the scope of this study to analyse the ways in which the two main decision-making groups, "Richtlinien-kommissionen" and textbook authors, go about their work. Personal experience in the latter capacity has made it clear, for example, that different sets of "Richtlinien" can make conflicting demands on authors, and that important decisions often have to be made on an ad hoc basis because clear guidelines do not exist in all the relevant areas. This experience led to the wish to improve the textbook author's lot by trying to define at least one set of parameters more clearly.

It was necessary to decide at what point in the selection process it would be logical to plan an intervention. The decision was made to produce material at a pre-syllabus level. This term is used by Lee in the following context: "As far as grammar and vocabulary are concerned, there is bound to be choice, and that choice is most severe at an elementary stage: another truism. But what is the choice

made from? Perhaps only from the syllabus-maker's or course writer's impression of English as a whole - but perhaps from some definable source, such as a full grammar of English. This is what I call a pre-syllabus, and a grammatical pre-syllabus for English is a full statement of the grammatical facts of English looked at as possible teaching-learning material. There is more than one kind of pre-syllabus."

(LEE, 1979:5, author's emphasis)

Lee thus uses the term pre-syllabus to cover the whole range of English as seen in terms of a particular FLT approach (e.g. structural or notional). In a syllabus material would be selected according to the favoured approach. It would also be a function of the syllabus to grade the material, i.e. to lay down the order in which pupils should learn it (LEE, 1979).

In the model advocated here, the selecting and grading processes have been clearly separated. The term pre-syllabus is used for the selection of material which it is suggested should be mastered by the end of a course, in this case a first or basic course. The term syllabus here refers to a graded version of this material.

In a model developed by Hüllen (HÜLLEN, 1971:24-28), a pre-syllabus as defined above would be classified as an attempt to crystallise the two-way exchange of experience which Hüllen sees as occupying the middle ground between language teaching didactics and methods. Hüllen believes that it is possible to limit the unscientific element in this area, but not to eliminate it (HÜLLEN, 1971:28).

Pre-syllabuses are seen here as the collective responsibility of teachers, language advisors/administrators, FLT experts and independent groups such as the Council of Europe. Syllabuses, which would be at the methods level in Hüllen's model, are treated here as the province of textbook authors, who in the nature of things will usually also be employed in one or other of the capacities listed above as well.

In addition to presenting the best possible choice of language material, textbook authors are required to try and make possible the realization of general and specific non-language objectives in the English lesson. As has already been implied, these objectives are deliberately left out

of account here, except to the extent that the ability to "get by" in any second language inevitably involves much more than purely verbal skills.

In the related but not identical field of subject matter, a clear distinction is made: the subject matter for everyday situations (see 1.2 below) is an integral part of the pre-syllabus; the subject matter for additional narrative material would be the responsibility of textbook authors. There will never be enough motivation in everyday situations alone to keep the interest of a class. The popularity of reading texts, in particular "stories" has been confirmed by both Heuer and Piepho in the 7th class (third year of English). (HEUER, 1976c, PIEPHO, 1976b) The authors' task and challenge in this connection would be to make their book interesting, while adding as little lexical material as possible to the pre-syllabus lists. There is nevertheless no reason why even the most elementary narrative text should not possess some literary quality. At this stage the only other main text form would be dialogues intended as models for productive work.

Weinrich has recently criticized the dominance of everyday situations in modern textbooks in no uncertain terms: "Die banalsten und trivialsten Alltagsdialoge beherrschen unsere Lehrwerke, und wer im Ausland fehlerfrei sein Bier, seinen Rotwein oder seinen Espresso bestellen kann, ist schon ein Herr in dieser pädagogischen Provinz." (WEINRICH, 1983:46) As has been stated above, the fact that the pre-syllabus proposals put forward here are for everyday situations, is very definitely not intended to imply that this is all that textbooks should be "about". On the contrary, "Nur die Literatur macht ... den Sprachunterricht erträglich."(WEINRICH, 1983:49) Weinrich understands the term literature in a fairly narrow, traditional sense. For ordinary learners literature would of course have to include works which were not "classics".

Incidentally, Weinrich's examples of everyday situations suggest that he is thinking mainly of the most primitive "survival" situations. One claim for which evidence will be provided here is that the skills and speech material for dealing with everyday situations at all adequately are much

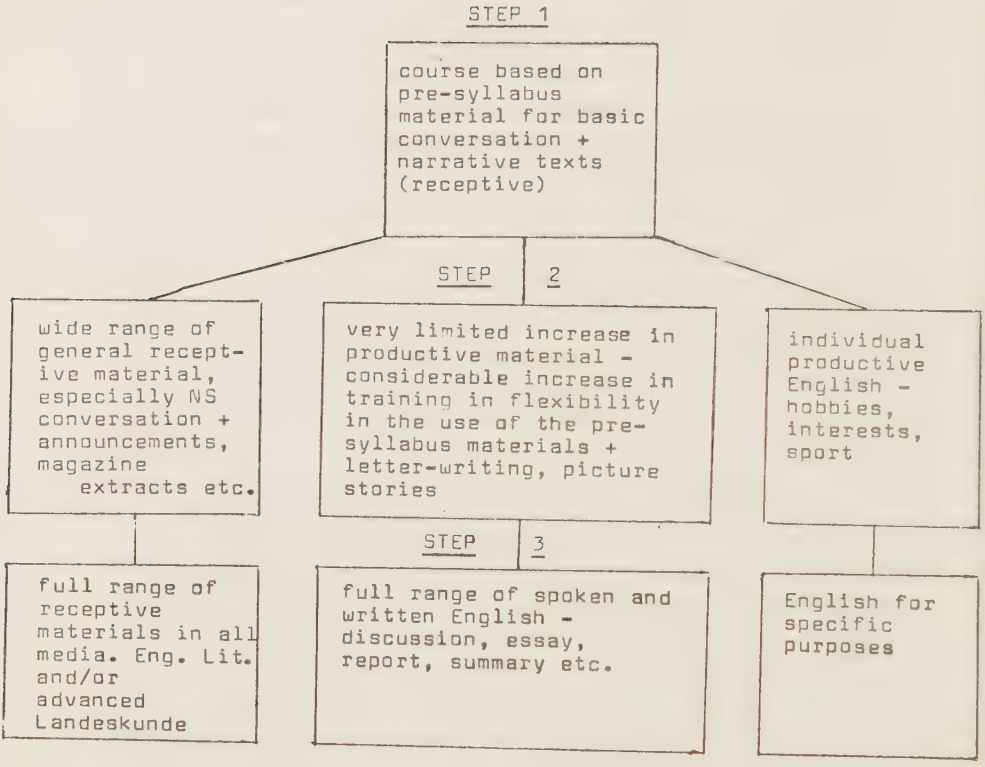
less primitive than has sometimes been supposed.

3. Positive acceptance of a strictly limited objective is suggested. It is assumed here that the ability to carry on a simple conversation should be the main productive objective of first ESL courses for ordinary learners. The pre-syllabus materials described in the study are intended to make the achievement of this objective possible.

Teachers in Gymnasien are unlikely to accept this limited objective, but it is worth mentioning a) that there is no reason why able pupils should not pursue other objectives on a parallel basis rather than subsequently as suggested in the diagram on the following page if time is available, and b) that the amount of material of various kinds included in the pre-syllabus is not inconsiderable.

Inevitably the range of language is very limited when compared with educated native-speaker conversation as recorded for example in A Corpus of English Conversation (SVARTVIK and QUIRK, 1980). However, native-like competence in a second language is a lucky accident rather than an attainable goal for ordinary learners (SELINKER, 1972:212). For them, something approaching mastery of an incomplete system which they can use is better than very partial mastery of what is believed to be the full system. As far as structures are concerned, it is already accepted that "Hauptschüler" will not learn very much more after about the fourth year, while even in the Gymnasium the grammar is thought of as largely "covered" by the start of the "Oberstufe".

As far as spoken production is concerned, it is suggested that this minimum should be accepted as a realistic maximum for a majority of second language learners. More time is available for learning English in school than is necessary to master the pre-syllabus which will be outlined here. Further steps would depend on a number of factors such as time available, ability, and the long-term plans of the student. The diagram on the next page shows one possible set of options. The decision to split the course into three steps was arbitrary. The time taken for each step would depend on the ability of the group of learners, the time available for English, motivation and other variables.


STEP 1
course based on pre-syllabus material for basic conversation + narrative texts (receptive)
STEP 2
wide range of general receptive material, especially NS conversation + announcements, magazine extracts etc.
very limited increase in productive material - considerable increase in training in flexibility in the use of the pre-syllabus materials + letter-writing, picture stories
individual productive English - hobbies, interests, sport
STEP 3
full range of receptive materials in all media. Eng. Lit. and/or advanced Landeskunde
full range of spoken and written English - discussion, essay, report, summary etc.
English for specific purposes

Student comments on their experience with pupils to whom they are giving private lessons ("Nachhilfestunden") indicate that old ideas of the syllabus as a "ladder" of grammatical structures still persist, even if this view of language learning has long since vanished from the official guidelines. "Advanced" structures are often taught to pupils who have not yet mastered their past and present tenses. Pupils who are incapable of small talk are asked to produce complex written texts.

A central assumption in this study is that however the individual's learning process may branch out and develop later, and however much the emphasis may shift from one kind of skill to another, it makes sense to begin with a grounding in conversation.

1.2 Approaches to a pre-syllabus

The obvious form for a pre-syllabus intended to make possible the achievement of the objective "ability to carry on a simple conversation" is a series of lists containing the elements required. For the present purpose conversation is defined as appropriate speech between two or more partners in everyday situations. The inclusion of the term appropriate in the definition is intended to underline the importance of English in use. To examine the full implications of appropriateness would be an immensely complex task (CRYSTAL and DAVY, 1975:110), going far beyond the scope of this study. Nevertheless, knowledge of "what to talk about with whom, when, where, in what manner" (HYMES, 1972:277), is at least as important as knowledge of other kinds in out of school language use. Actual "rules of use" (HYMES, 1972:279) or "speaking rules" (CORDER, 1973:93) cannot be included in the pre-syllabus lists. However, knowledge of the rules is of little use without suitable language material for putting them into practice (see also 4.5 below).

The set of lists which is presented in Chapter 6 can be no more than a starting point for achieving the objective, but without a suitable selection of language material, success is ruled out from the beginning.

The definition implies that learners will mainly need to use their English in everyday situations (situation and related terms are discussed in 5.1). The exact future requirements of individual learners can never be predicted with certainty. The intention here is very similar to that stated by the Council of Europe in connection with their Threshold Level project: "(to) enable the learners to cope at least minimally with those communication situations which may be most directly relevant to them." (VAN EK and ALEXANDER, 1977:2) Nevertheless, predictions of these needs for general first courses in English tend to be very similar (VAN EK and ALEXANDER, 1977:9). Learners share the view that everyday situations matter. Solmecke's research into the attitudes of former "Hauptschüler" to learning English makes it clear that the "Umgangssprache" (informal everyday English) was seen as a very important productive

objective, and that in retrospect ex-pupils felt they had been cheated because this was not what they had learnt in school (SOLMECKE, 1975:134 and 136). Everyday speech occurs in everyday situations.

The situations covered below are similar to those referred to in modern pre-syllabus materials, "Richtlinien" and textbooks. There is no claim to originality in this respect.

The central problem of the study, therefore, is to isolate the best choice of language elements for dealing with common everyday situations. The following kinds of potentially relevant material are already available:

word lists

The "classic" word lists of the past, of which by far the most influential has been West's "General Service List" (WEST, 1953), were based on written English and are therefore not directly relevant here. However, the principles according to which words were selected are still valid, and this research must enjoy a special position in any attempt to reduce language to a minimum (see 4.1 below). These lists were based on analyses of often very large written corpora. More recently lists based on spoken corpora have been produced, but none has yet acquired the same kind of authority as the "General Service List". These publications are covered in 4.1 below.

At present, the vast majority of lexical items taught in schools are single lexical items. In fact, a great deal of language material is stored and used in "prefabs" or chunks (see 5.2.2). The vital feature of these fixed expressions or collocations from the learner's point of view is that he cannot generate them from his knowledge of their component elements, because a collocation functions as a whole, and not as the sum of its parts. A collocation is therefore defined as any expression which the learner cannot be expected to produce using familiar structures and lexical items with the meanings he has learnt for them. This definition is a modification of standard definitions of idiom, intended to take the learner's point of view into account. One feature of the pre-syllabus material developed for this study is that it contains a large number of collocations.

corpus material for spoken English

Recorded corpora for British English (for a discussion of the choice of norm see 3.1 below) are available with both child and adult speakers (RUTHERFORD, 1969, SVARTVIK and QUIRK, 1980). This material was recorded for general research purposes. In the case of the SVARTVIK/QUIRK corpus, work on frequency lists is at present in progress (see SVARTVIK et al., 1982 and Chapter 7 below). Schonell et al. and Howes, on the other hand, had frequency lists in mind from the first when they collected their material (see 4.1.4). The SVARTVIK/QUIRK corpus consists to a large extent of "senior common room" conversation between academics. Everyday situations are quite rare. Three general and perhaps ultimately insoluble problems in connection with finding suitable models for the learner should be mentioned at this point:

1. Fully authentic conversation (see 3.3 for a discussion of authenticity in connection with didactic materials) is simply unmanageable as a model because it is difficult, often specialised, disjointed, and to a considerable extent "for natives only". The still widely-held view that the ultimate objective of all foreign language learning should be "die fremde Sprache zur Verfügung haben wie die Muttersprache" (MÜLLER, 1979:137) is thus untenable. The following short extract does not need further comment:

they ‖had △that «and» you ‖heard the 'voice at the △other ÈND■ 915 [hæ ?] ‖having to 'say △YÉS■ 916 cos «3 to 4 sylls» he ‖built his △ÔWN■ · 917 he's ‖got a SUPÊRB■ 918 ‖YŎU know■ 919 ‖mine 'sounds VÊRY 'feeble■ 920 ‖after △HÍS■ – 921 ‖great 'speakers △THÌS 'big■ 922 and ‖BÈAUTIFUL■ · 923 ‖STRÒNG■ – 924 ‖{LÒVELY} △WÒODEN ÓNE■ · 925 ‖YŎU know■ 926 ‖not this · sort of △{MÒDERN} · △PLÀSTIC sort of ★STÚFF■★

■ 927 ★oh★ yes · ★★[m]★★

>A 928 ★★but★★ the the [ði:] ‖{MÈLLOW} TŎNE■ 929 ‖it's FAN△TÀSTIC■ – 930 [ɔ:m] · and ‖he's [ɔ:m] – – he ‖RŬNG them 'up■ 931 and ‖sorted △THĂT one 'out 'for me■ – – 932 but ‖it's [ɔ:m] – – –

? 933 ★«3 to 4 sylls»★

>A 932 ★‖I've ‖just got a★ △hope that 'that [ɔ:m] –

■ 934 you've got my favourite glass there

B 935 ★★‖YÉAH■★★

■ 936 ★★«you»★★ you're very privileged

B 937 you ‖STŎLE this■ 938 when you were ‖out ★«1 syll»★

■ 939 ★no★ it was a gift

B 940 ‖«[m̀]»■

>■ 939 it was a gift from grateful students – give him a beer glass when he goes ★★(laughs ·)★★

A 941 ★★‖[m̂]■★★

>■ 939 symbol of something – –

(SVARTVIK and QUIRK, 1980:192)

2. There are some everyday situations for non-native speakers in which native speakers do not usually find themselves (e.g. being told that they speak good English, STEVENSON, 1977).

3. If situations are manipulated in any way in accordance with pre-conceived ideas about suitability for learners, the material can no longer be considered fully authentic. (Problems connected with the use of the term authentic in an 'LT' context are discussed in 4.3 below. Fully authentic material would have to be both genuine, i.e. produced by bona fide native speakers and reliable, i.e. not subject to any artificial constraints.) For German, Beile and Beile have produced a semi-authentic corpus (using native speakers, at least one of whom knew that recordings were being made for a particular purpose) (BEILE and BEILE, 1981). According to the authors (personal communication), not one of these dialogues recorded for listening comprehension could provide an acceptable basis for productive second language work.

Recordings of conversations in which non-native speakers play a role have tended to be limited case studies carried out for purposes quite different from the present one (see 4.5.5 below). Usually the dialogue has been produced "to order" under laboratory conditions (GÖTZ, 1977, JASPER, 1981). It would be extremely time-consuming to collect a full-scale corpus of this kind in the field in the hope of using it to construct pre-syllabus lists of language elements for a basic course in spoken English. If the task is ever attempted, there are bound to be subjective elements in the selection of speakers and situations, and there is bound to be a great deal of non-standard language which the researchers will have to correct. The following passage from the corpus used by Jasper illustrates some of the problems very clearly. All the underlined passages are questionable for one reason or another. This would not be an acceptable way of taking the problems of learners into account, mainly because the result would be too close to a "school English" norm (see 3.1).

(door rings, opened by Y)

Y: hello

X: hello, it's me again erm, I beg your pardon er, I wanted to have a short or small talk with you

Y: well come in

X: er, I know you very well er, you see a problem has arisen now er, and I want to ask you a favour, erm, it's really impossible for me now to, erm, do the baby-sitting tomorrow night

Y: (oh dear)

X: and I wanted to ask you whether it's possible to find, er, someone else er, helping you

Y: well, I was er depending on your coming tomorrow erm, I don't think I know anybody else who could come

X: I'm sorry to hear, but it is very difficult for me to come tomorrow but, er, let me see, I've got an idea, I've got a lot a very lot of friends and er I might ring some of them up er and ask them whether they have er time to help you, it's just that I need some time, perhaps I could er, phone you at about, twelve o'clock today or is it too late or (sh) aren't you at home

Y: yes I'll be home at twelve so you could phone me, but I'm really going to be at work if you if you can't find anybody you know, because er, I have this meeting tomorrow night and I have to go it's the parents at school and so it's impossible for me to, (laughs) to er cancel the meeting, so I hope you're going to find somebody

X: I hope so too erm, but would you also be able to ask some persons or will that (be impossible)

Y: (well I can try), so you'll phone up at twelve o'clock

X: I'll phone up at twelve o'clock and I'll see what I can do and erm, then we'll see er, what we can do, for it is impossible for me to er, to do this tomorrow er, as well but I think we'll solve this problem

Y: well will you be able to come next Friday

(KASPER, 1981:482)

The learner's own interlanguage (see 3.2) cannot simply be used as a basis for the learner target language. Some of the problems involved in trying to take the difficulties of a particular group of learners into account in models for the learner target language are discussed in the course of the study (see 4.6).

textbooks

It would be possible to collate the language material from a representative selection of modern textbooks for the teaching of English in German schools in order to produce a pre-syllabus. The approach appears at first sight to have a number of advantages:

- A modern textbook is the result of teamwork involving teachers, native speakers and FLT experts. It should represent a good compromise between practical, theoretical and linguistic requirements.
- Requirements from the different sets of guidelines in force in different parts of Germany are met as far as is humanly possible. The risk of a one-sided approach is minimised.
- Authors have a fund of knowledge about the special problems of German native speakers learning English. They try to deal with problem areas in ways which reduce the difficulties.

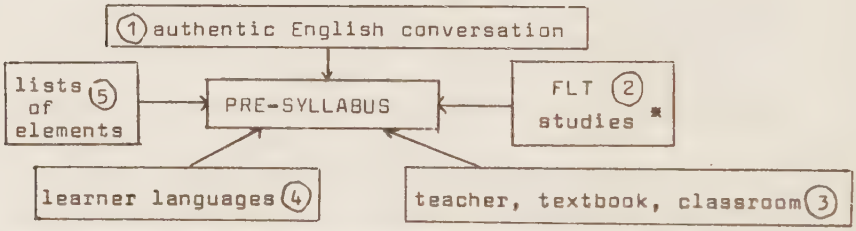
The textbook thus contains a selection of language which should meet all the main requirements of a basic course. However, there are serious disadvantages which more than outweigh these advantages for the present purpose: (It should be stressed that we are not discussing textbooks in normal use here, but treating them as potential corpus material, a role for which they were never intended.)

- Productive and receptive elements are not clearly separated.
- Textbooks have to attempt to cater for general educational and cultural objectives as well as linguistic objectives.
- The structure of a unit lays down a framework in which particular slots have to be filled. This inevitably leads to the ad hoc inclusion of elements which might not always be the best long-term choice.
- At present textbook authors have to grapple with language

content (pre-syllabus) and grading (syllabus) simultaneously.
- In a few cases externally imposed requirements may clash with important objectives. For example, the number of lexical items to be taught may be reduced to a point where the authors cannot include even the most common objects in standard word fields.
- Textbooks are commercial products. This means that the assumed views of the purchasers, in this case members of the teaching profession, play a very important role in the deliberations of authors and publishers. As a result, innovation is seen as a risk. There is a danger that new textbooks will be more like their predecessors than they really should be.

1.3 A modern pre-syllabus

Neither fully authentic spoken English at one extreme, nor the English of the textbook at the other, are acceptable starting points for the kind of pre-syllabus advocated here. Existing word lists are valuable for reference purposes, but they do not cover the full language spectrum. The middle ground where the pre-syllabus is located can be seen as a kind of exchange or melting pot where speech material, criteria and objectives from all sides meet and are blended:



(*corresponds to the didactic level in Hüllen's model (HÜLLEN, 1971:28))

The filtering and evaluating processes required are very complex. Relevant research is going on in a number of areas, but little objective assistance is available when it comes to deciding on the relative importance of different findings.

The inclusion or omission of a particular item can usually be decided on the basis of the answers to the following questions:

- Is the item common?
- Is it useful for second language learners?
- Is it easier to learn than possible alternatives?

The first question can be answered fairly satisfactorily by reference to areas 1 and 5 in the diagram above. A certain amount of guidance in answering question 2 is also available (the criterion of coverage is helpful, for example, or the discovery that vague, general purpose terms are particularly important for the learner (see 4.1.5 and 4.5.5)).

The third question is immensely difficult to answer. Research on learner languages (area 4, see 3.2.1) has taught us a good deal about "the significance of learners' errors" (CORDER, 1967), but not in any detail about possible consequences for the selection of language to be taught to learners in order to make these errors less likely.

The study of word associations in the second language is a case in point. It may well be advisable to teach words in groupings which correspond as far as possible to the learner's psychological norm rather than the ideal linguistic norm represented by native speaker associations (HEUER, 1973), and it is certainly valuable to point out factors which may influence the learner's associations as Heuer does, but there are all kinds of objections and limitations which stand in the way of any kind of general application, e.g.

- The vital function words hardly occur at all in associations (HEUER, 1973:67). Association tests give no information about the uses of words in sentences and texts (KIELHÖFER and SCHMIDT, 1981:162).
- In many cases, a large majority of native speakers choose words other than the primary association, which means that the data for the linguistic norm has to be treated with extreme caution. (160 out of 1000 Americans chose thread as the primary association for needle, but 840 (of whom 158 chose pin and 152 chose sharp) did not choose thread (MÜLLER, 1981, 523 and 528))
- Different native speaker and non-native speaker associations may be the result of cultural rather than linguistic factors (LAUERBACH, 1979b:388, KIELHÖFER and SCHMIDT, 1981:157-160).
- Cultural factors matter less with an international second language used as a lingua franca than with other languages (LAUERBACH, 1982:485).
- Finally, although some non-native associations become fossilized, and may be extremely difficult to eradicate (LAUERBACH, 1977:214), perhaps it simply does not matter very much if, for example, German native speakers insist on associating sugar with salt instead of pepper (MÜLLER, 1981:527).

The real usefulness of this research will probably be in helping to avoid primary associations between German and English words which are actually wrong (e.g. cry = shout (schreien) instead of cry = weep (weinen), HEUER, 1973:80). However, this is a problem at the methods level rather than the pre-syllabus level.

Work on language acquisition (see 4.6) provides information about the order in which structures are acquired, and the phases which learners pass through on the way to mastery of a structure, but this again would have consequences mainly at the level of methods.

The research into pidgins (see 3.2.2) reveals a number of simplified features which make these approximative systems easier to learn than standard languages, but these findings are of very limited help if the objective is a standard variety.

Specific research into difficulty (see 4.6.3) is still in the very early stages. The results so far are controversial, and could not provide the pre-syllabus constructor with detailed point by point assistance in his problems of selection.

The demands of the linguistic system are usually imperative in any case. It is generally agreed that the "'s' in the 3rd person singular" is very difficult for German pupils, but it simply cannot be omitted, or even "left until later". Compared with this massive problem, minor reductions in the learning load which may perhaps be achieved by including only one of two slightly different forms (e.g. here you are but not there you are - see 5.3 and the reference pages for dialogue 17) fade into insignificance.

Area 2 in the diagram is a subject-specific exchange between "purer" academic research and, in this model, the pre-syllabus area (direct links between FLT studies and the classroom also exist, of course). The communicative approach (4.4), discourse analysis (4.5) and work on collocations and idioms (5.2.2) all supplied important information about what should be included (see also the diagram in 8.1), but again, not about relative priorities within the pre-syllabus blend.

In the foreseeable future, therefore, the nature of the pre-syllabus will depend to a considerable extent on experience, i.e. the personal experience of the compiler(s) at first and second hand as a result of work in as many of the areas 1-5 as possible, and the encapsulated experience already available in textbooks and other pre-syllabus materials.

The need to make common-sense decisions based on experience is best illustrated by means of a simple example. As Raasch points out, the days of the week have very different frequencies in French, but it would be quite ridiculous not to include all of them in a first course (RAASCH, 1972:238). The same is true of English too, of course. In the Howes corpus (HOWES, 1966), Sunday occurs more than three times as frequently as Thursday. Similar decisions are unavoidable at all levels.

One modern attempt to solve the problems of compiling a pre-syllabus is the Council of Europe's "Threshold Level" (VAN EK, 1975). In terms of the diagram above, the Council of Europe attempted to occupy the pre-syllabus area by writing or adapting lists of elements (lexical items, expressions to cover speech functions, structures). These materials were intended to enable learners to deal with the situations in which it was assumed they would need English (for a detailed discussion of the Threshold project see 4.3 below). The main point to make at this stage is that items were on the whole selected on an ad hoc basis (see 4.3.4). No attempt was made to produce examples of the learner target language which could be generated from the lists. This was presumably seen as a function of course writers using the lists. However, in most respects "The Threshold Level" was a considerable step forward.

1.4 The foundation dialogues: a didactic corpus approach

The main difference between this approach and that of the Council of Europe is that here an attempt has been made to produce the learner target language in coherent dialogue form before making lists of elements. The making of lists was the last step in a process intended to include recent research finding on spoken English, to reduce the inevitable subjective element in the undertaking, and at the same time to reduce the difficulty for the learner as far as possible (see 5.3 where this process is illustrated for a sample dialogue).

The pre-syllabus area is thus filled with a model version of the target language in dialogue form. This didactic dialogue corpus, along with the associated lists of the elements it contains, will be referred to as the foundation dialogues, because it is intended to provide a foundation on which an English course for simple conversation could be based.

The term didactic is used here in exactly the same way as in Bludau's term didactic dialogues (see 5.1.1). It means that the language in the foundation dialogues is intended to be a reduced but not distorted version of a standard language, suitable for second language learners.

The functions of the foundation dialogues and the lists of elements are intended to be complementary. The dialogues present treatments of everyday situations in acceptable spoken English. Acceptable means that linguistically naive native speakers would not object to the language or find it unusual in any way (see 3.3). The lists give the speech material of the dialogues in a convenient form. Conversely, the dialogues provide examples of the items on the lists in context (see 5.1).

This approach has a number of advantages when compared either with corpus analysis of authentic texts, the use of textbooks as a source of the learner target language, or the Council of Europe approach:

1. It was relatively easy to produce the material (compared with the collection of traditional large corpora, for example).

2. The dialogues provided the various informants who were consulted with a manageable corpus of language in use on which to base their comments. Manageable in this context simply means that they were able to read the material through in a few hours, and could see how it is intended to function without the need for elaborate explanations.

3. It would not be difficult to modify the material if parts of it eventually become obsolete, or in response to feedback from users (it has been stressed continually that any pre-syllabus can only be tentative at present).

The main apparent disadvantage of the approach is that the first "naive" version of the dialogues was written using a modified version of introspection, which implies "being one's own informant" (LEWANDOWSKI, 1973: "Introspection", my translation). This in turn implies that they are written in the author's idiolect: "variety of language used by one individual speaker, including peculiarities of pro(nunciation), grammar and vocabulary ... Linguists often analyse their own (id)iolect) to make general statements about language." (HARTMANN and STORK (eds.), 1972: "Idiolect").

However, there are important differences between the language which an individual produces when speaking freely for his or her own purposes, and the language which s/he will produce for didactic purposes, in this case as a model for learners of English as a second language.

It is claimed, therefore, that given the nature of the task and the experience of the author as a textbook writer, even the first naive version of the dialogues a) contained little idiosyncratic English, and b) was relatively simple for learners.

The fact that the selection of language, even in the first version of the foundation dialogues, was different in some respects from that in modern textbooks, arose from the different objective, and from the fact that background reading on, for example, discourse analysis, had to a certain extent already exercised some influence on the choice of language.

This naive version of the dialogues was then subjected to a number of checks involving other informants. A brief description of the development process follows:

1. A list of 33 titles was compiled by collating information from a number of relevant publications,

e.g. OCKENDEN, 1972	(dialogues in everyday situations)
VAN EK and ALEXANDER, 1977	("Waystage" - Council of Europe)
DE FREITAS, 1978	(speech functions in everyday situations)
WATCYN-JONES, 1979	(intermediate functional ESL course for social interaction)

2. The first version of the dialogues was written.

3. The lexical items in the various word-fields were compared with coverage of the same areas in other lists for spoken English. Omissions were rectified.

4. The dialogues were read by ten educated English native speakers of different ages and from different parts of the country (all had received education above secondary school level). Brief information about these informants is given in Appendix 3. Their suggestions were incorporated wherever there was a clear preference for a form different from that in the original version (i.e. when several informants were in agreement).
(The dialogues were also read by two educated American native speakers in order to find out whether there are serious differences between British and American English at this level. The norm inevitably remains British English, although a number of suggestions have been adopted in the interests of international acceptability (see also 3.1 below).

5. The dialogue situations were simulated in language teaching groups at the Universität Dortmund. In some cases the dialogues which students produced consistently required elements not originally included. These were added. The random element in this procedure is not denied, but it was nevertheless a valuable check on language needs in situations fairly close to real life.

6. Background reading, particularly on collocations and discourse analysis, revealed some further deficiencies in the material. An attempt was made to rectify these at a very basic level.

7. After all these modifications had been made, the dialogues were sent to four British FLT experts and/or textbook authors with experience relevant to the situation in Germany (see the reference pages for the dialogues).

8. Finally, an attempt was made to model the target language in a more direct way. The dialogues were read and commented on by four experienced teachers, two each from the Hauptschule and the Realschule. They were asked to point out anything which they felt was both a) very difficult for German learners and b) unnecessary. (The results of this check are also dealt with on the reference pages for the individual dialogues.)

The dialogues could be used as the basis for an English course in conversation, and the lists which have been made from them could be used as a pre-syllabus for general reference purposes. It has been argued that a fully objective pre-syllabus cannot be compiled at present, or in the foreseeable future.

A study of this kind can reveal gaps in the information which pre-syllabus compilers require from the relevant academic disciplines, and it is hoped that it can also provide some assistance to course compilers by offering a more modern, but still inevitably tentative blend than its predecessors.

1.5 The structure of the study

Other relevant issues can best be introduced by means of brief statements about the following chapters, in which the rationale behind the structure of the study is indicated.

- In Chapter 2 past and present attitudes to spoken English in the German education system are examined, with a view to discovering how important spoken English has been as an objective, and how the term has been understood.

- In Chapter 3 the status of the language in the foundation dialogues in relation to the two main standards and to approximative languages is discussed.

- In Chapter 4 an attempt has been made to bring findings from a number of other background research areas to bear on the language in the foundation dialogues.
The history of word lists is dealt with. Simplified readers were examined in order to discover how decisions are made about the lexical and structural material to be included. The Council of Europe materials are dealt with at some length, because they are in some ways the direct forerunner of the foundation dialogues. The communicative approach has helped to shift emphasis in English teaching from form to meaning, from written to spoken language, and from referential to "ego-involved" use of language. The dialogues are an attempt to provide the kind of language material which would help learners to communicate more effectively. Discourse analysis is concerned with the ways in which language is used in speech. The implications of this field of study for FLT are extremely important. At a very basic level expressions with discourse function have been included in the foundation dialogues. Research into (natural) second language acquisition is revealing differences between formal and informal learning which are of considerable interest to syllabus constructors. The chapter ends with brief discussion of the advantages and risks of "modelling" the target language to suit a particular group of learners, and of difficulty in the context of second language learning.

- In Chapter 5, problems associated with attempting to produce didactic dialogues, which take place within a credible situational framework, and which provide a context

for the language used, are discussed. In the second part of the chapter, problems arising from the various lists are dealt with. An attempt has also been made, on a sample basis, to show in detail how the final version of a typical dialogue was arrived at.

- Chapter 6 contains the foundation dialogues with their reference pages, and the lists of lexical items and structures.

- In Chapter 7, the differences between the foundation dialogues and materials at present in use are illustrated by comparing a selection of samples. A detailed comparison covering the full range of items and lists would not lead to a worthwhile further gain in the potential usefulness of the dialogues.

- In the final chapter, the possible implications of adopting pre-syllabus materials like those in the dialogues as a basis for English courses are discussed.

The acid test of the working assumption that vital elements are missing from English courses at present would not be simply to demonstrate that there are differences between the language material in the dialogues and that in other lists, but to show that students who have learnt their English from a course which contains this rather different material are able to function more effectively in real everyday situations. A test of this kind is beyond the scope of the study.

2. Conversation as an FLT objective

In an FLT context there are often important differences between spoken English and conversation. In the past, spoken English has often merely been the "opposite" to written English. It has referred to the ability to speak English words and sentences.

The meaning of what was said was less important than producing isolated samples of acceptably-pronounced and grammatically correct English. Pattern practice is a way of making the production of such samples automatic, but again meaning usually plays a secondary role.

The communicative approach (see 2.2.6 and 4.4) helped to focus the attention of teachers and learners on "getting things done" by means of language, i.e. on meaning, and it also introduced the concept of interaction between speech partners into the classroom, although typical exchanges were short and mono-functional (the term exchange is dealt with in 4.5).

Conversation itself is much more complex than an exchange of speech acts (see 4.5), but it is nevertheless the most important form of spoken language for ordinary learners (see ABERCROMBIE, 1963-4:11, BÖRBEIN and KNÖLL, 1977). In the past this kind of language has not usually been regarded as very important. In this connection a brief historical survey of the position of "Lektoren" in German universities is very instructive. A survey of changing attitudes to spoken English in German schools follows.

As always with a summary, there is a danger that positions have been described in colours which are too bold and monochrome: "Fähigkeit zum situativ richtigen Sprachzeichengebrauch - kommunikative Kompetenz - ist spätestens seit Viëtor anerkanntes Lernziel, wenn auch der Begriff sich noch nicht eingestellt hatte. Pragmatische Elemente spielten im Unterricht als die Ausnahme zu Regeln, als Listen von idiomatischen Ausdrücken, als Sonderanweisungen ("Merke!") eine bedeutende Rolle. Was es aber tatsächlich heißt, Sprache in konkreten, zeitlich, räumlich, kulturell und personal bestimmten Situationen zu verwenden, wurde wohl zu wenig komplex gesehen oder unerörtert vorausgesetzt."

(HÜLLEN, 1977:107)

2.1 Lektors in German universities

It would be reasonable to assume that the relative position of lektors in German universities is closely related to the status of the spoken language in these institutions at a particular time. As Finkenstaedt has shown (FINKENSTAEDT, 1974), their career has been a chequered one.

The universities have always been doubtful about the status of everything which is directly relevant to a career in the outside world, or which seems to consist mainly of mastering a skill (FINKENSTAEDT, 1974:26). This attitude explains why the teachers of foreign languages in German universities were often in the past put in the same category as riding and fencing masters (FINKENSTAEDT, 1974-27-28).

In the seventeenth century the modern languages taught were usually French and Italian. In the eighteenth century the growing economic importance of England, and the high prestige of English literature and culture in Germany, brought the teaching of English gradually into prominence. John Tompson, lektor (1731) and later professor (1751) in Göttingen, trained language teachers who carried his influence to other parts of the country (FINKENSTAEDT, 1974:28-9). The very special position of John Tompson seems to have been related to the fact that he embodied the "gentleman" ideal as well as being an excellent language teacher. Even at this time of high popularity for the English language and English culture, Tompson was not paid as a full professor. Junior lektors in Göttingen in his day were regarded as irresponsible, and were excluded from becoming faculty members (FINKENSTAEDT, 1974:28-9).

In the nineteenth century the spoken language was pushed into the background by the rise of neo-humanistic philology ("neuhumanistische Philologie"). It was felt that the "superficial" teaching of the spoken language should be replaced by a thorough grounding in philology. As a result there were only a handful of native speakers working in German universities in the first half of the nineteenth century (FINKENSTAEDT, 1974:29-30). They were still needed in humbler institutions such as commercial schools and

schools for young ladies, but Gymnasien took the same line as the universities.

Even when English ("Anglistik") emerged as a university subject in its own right in the third quarter of the century, the spoken language was not regarded as important. Rather more native speakers were employed in the universities, but Finkenstaedt thinks it likely that their main job was to teach modern literature, as opposed to the older literature generally preferred by their German colleagues (FINKENSTAEDT, 1974:30). There was a deep gulf between the humanistic study of English, which treated the subject very much as a substitute for Latin, and more practical and realistic approaches to the English-speaking countries and their language.

During the period between the wars, lektors played a very minor role at German universities. After the second world war they were asked to teach "Landeskunde" as well as the English language.(FINKENSTAEDT, 1974:31).

Today most universities have a number of native speakers, both British and American, performing a variety of functions. The problem of their status within the system has still not been satisfactorily solved, except on an individual basis. It is still rare, for example, to find them taking part in final oral examinations in English.

2.2 Spoken English in schools

With the exception of Hamburg, which introduced English teaching in its Volksschulen in 1871 (SAUER, 1968:49-50), English was mainly reserved for pupils from the middle classes and above until after the second world war. The Oberrealschulen in Prussia succeeded in having their final examination officially accepted as equal in standard to that of the Gymnasien in the year 1900 (SAUER, 1978:27). The approach to language teaching in the Realschulen was more "realistic" than that in the Gymnasien. Sauer nevertheless supports the view that the humanistic ideal remained substantially unchallenged at the turn of the century. Working on the text was so important that speaking the language, although recommended in theory, was simply not an important objective (HEUER, 1969:378).

The reform movement which was set in motion by Viëtor's famous article (VIËTOR, 1882), cannot therefore have had very much effect at grass roots level until well into the twentieth century (SAUER, 1978:28).

Other important impulses towards a more "realistic" approach to FLT were the division of Germany after the second world war, and the general introduction of English into non-selective secondary schools (Volksschulen, later Hauptschulen) following a ministerial directive in 1964. In the more recent past changes in attitudes to the spoken language as an ELT objective have come about mainly as a result of developments within language teaching rather than because of administrative or political influences. The threat to "English for all" in some Bundesländer, and a widespread reduction in the amount of time allotted to English in schools may already mark the beginning of a new phase.

The objective "spoken English" has meant different things at different times in recent history. On the whole it has not meant attempting to teach the ability to converse. An attempt will be made to summarise some of the ways in which the term has been understood, using the following materials: commentaries on official Richtlinien, publications on teaching methods and textbook analysis, textbooks and school grammars.

2.2.1 Before 1882

We can assume that the teaching of the old language masters was as practical as that of their colleagues who taught fencing and riding. This practical tradition lived on in the nineteenth century, but outside the Gymnasien and universities. Some of the main kinds of essentially practical approaches to English were commercial courses, what we would now call ESP courses (English for doctors, sailors, postal officials, etc.), and courses for emigrants to the US (SCHRÖDER, 1975:XVI-XVIII).

General courses in what purported to be conversation were also very popular (SCHRÖDER, 1975:XXIV). Some of these courses, then as now, claimed to be able to teach English in a few days or hours.

One of the most popular publications of this kind was Burkhardt's Der kleine Engländer (ref. in SCHRÖDER, 1975: 50-51). In this book conversation is treated as an interchange of set phrases. Anyone who learnt the phrases, it was implied, would be able to converse in the foreign language. This kind

of approach to conversation has survived up to the present day. The latest edition of Baedeker's guide to Great Britain, for example, still includes a page of useful phrases for the traveller (BAEDEKER (eds.), 1979:344). The new Pons Reise-wörterbuch Englisch (SIEBERT, 1980), consists mainly of German and English expressions for all the situations a visitor to Britain is likely to meet. It is very much a modern version of the phrase-books of the past. Lists of idiomatic expressions were also an important element in these books (SCHRÖDER, 1975:XVI).

Although the spoken language was not regarded as very important within the Gymnasium, Plate's very successful English textbook series did not exclude conversation. The complete course contained three elements: grammar, reader and conversation book (refs. in HEUER, 1969:378-9).

The first part of Plate's conversation book (PLATE, 1857) consists of a set of German-English vocabulary lists grouped in word fields under headings such as "Der Haushalt; Das Gesinde. The Household; the Domestics" or "Der menschliche Körper. The Human Body."(PLATE, 1857:6,8). A number of items on these lists are of low frequency (e.g."eine Adlernase - an aquiline nose"(PLATE, 1857:8), but Plate was clearly concerned to add everyday items to the largely literary vocabulary which was normally taught at the time. Following each list is a set of sentences, again in German and English, with the heading "Übung-Exercise". These sentences are in the form of unrelated general statements about items on the foregoing list, or definitions. They are not conversation, although some of the remarks could conceivably have occurred during a conversation, e.g. "We have a footman and two maid-servants." (PLATE, 1857:6) Presumably these sentences would have been learnt by heart. The language is frequently quaint, but actual errors are rare.

The second main section of the book consists of specimen dialogues for everyday situations, e.g. "Beim Frühstuck - at Breakfast; Die Einladung - the Invitation" (PLATE, 1857:XII) The section on staying in a hotel is again quaint in places, but essentially similar to modern treatments of the same topic if allowances are made for changes in hotel life since the mid-nineteenth century:

> "I wish to take a bath; are there any baths in the neighbourhood?
>
> You can have one here in the house; hot or cold, as you wish it.

> A warm bath, if you please; but first fill the water-jug, and bring me some hot water to shave with. Don't forget to give me a towel."
>
> (PLATE, 1857:197)

The book also contains a list of idiomatic phrases.

The advice for using the book which Plate gives in the introduction is completely modern, except that the interactive and receptive aspect of conversation are not taken into account: "(Der Lerner) muß auch im Stande sein, seine Vorstellungen an einander zu knüpfen und mit einander zu verbinden; er muß Gedanken schaffen und mit dem Gedanken zugleich den passendsten Ausdruck hervorbringen können. Dies ist erst Sprechen im eigentlichen Sinne des Wortes." (PLATE, 1857:VI-VII)

The words "freie Unterhaltungen" appear in very heavy type on p.VII of the introduction. However, as Heuer points out, there is often a gulf between the progressive introductions to textbooks and the actual, sometimes much more traditional contents (HEUER, 1969:379). This particular objective has remained elusive up to the present day.

2.2.2 "Der Sprachunterricht muß umkehren"

Viëtor's complaints (VIËTOR, 1882) about the kind of English which was being taught in his day can be summarised as follows:

- Pronunciation was being taught mainly in single letters, not in sounds (p.157).
- Above this level words were being taught rather than sentences (p.157).
- As a result of misleading and out of date textbooks, and ignorance on the part of teachers, the pronunciation which was being taught was abysmal (158-60).
- Pronunciation thus taught provided a very slender foundation for the rules of grammar which followed (p.161).
- These rules were firmly based on Latin grammar (p.161).
- The teaching method is compared with showing a carpenter's apprentice fine examples of carpentry and telling him about the different kinds of wood and tools, without ever letting him actually cut or drill wood himself (p.164-5).

  (i.e. words and rules were memorised, then the new text was translated into German. The English language was not being used in a meaningful way.)

- The texts themselves were disjointed and unmotivating, particularly in the early stages before original texts could be dealt with (p.166-7).

Viëtor's suggestions for a more enlightened approach were:

- There should be a new approach to the teaching of pronunciation, based on the study of phonetics (p.169).

- The main activity in the English lesson should be meaningful reading of English texts instead of rule-learning. The text would be translated, retold in English, and there would be comprehension questions on it (p.168-171).

- Written work would be left until last. It would consist mainly of answers to comprehension questions (p.171).

- Translation into the second language should have no place in schools (p.171).

- There should be no rote learning of vocabulary lists (p.171).

- Grammar would be treated in context as it arose in the text (p.171).

- "Bringen wir den Schüler dahin, daß er außer in seiner Muttersprache auch in der fremden Sprache denken und sich ausdrücken lernt, so haben wir, dächte ich, genug geleistet." (p.171)

- "Daß in der Schule die fremde Sprache auch gesprochen werden muß, kann gar keine Frage sein." (p.171).

Throughout the century, before and after Viëtor, conversation is seen as a separate activity, not directly linked with learning the rules and vocabulary of the language. It was thought that conversation at the everyday level could be mastered by learning suitable phrases. This kind of conversation played a very small role in Gymnasien, where it would have been regarded as superficial. Viëtor's approach would imply that pupils should be taught to speak correctly, but that they should use the language mainly to talk about texts.

2.2.3 Between the wars

Sundermann's critical bibliography of books on ELT (SUNDERMANN, 1966) contains reviews of only four German publications during the period 1920-1930, and works from abroad by Jesperson, Palmer and Fowler during the period 1900-1940. The 1930's was also the period when word lists for the teaching of reading were developed (see 4.1.3 below).

No clear picture of spoken English as an objective emerges from the German books on method which appeared during the period between the wars. In his Methodik des Neusprachlichen Unterrichts (1925 - refs. in SUNDERMANN, 1966:14-17). Strohmeyer suggested that the best English teachers should teach the beginners, so that a good English accent would be acquired during the introductory phonetic course. His remarks on speaking suggest that he regarded it as important, but that he saw it as consisting mainly of sentence production.

Aronstein, on the other hand, questions the relative value of spoken English compared with other objectives: "Als Unterrichtsziel kann doch die Sprechfertigkeit nur in sehr geringem Maße gelten" (Aronstein, Methodik des neusprachlichen Unterrichts (1926)p.77, refs. in SUNDERMANN, 1966, 10-13).

The growing importance of "Landes- und Kulturkunde" is obvious in both books.

Palmer's influential book English Through Actions (PALMER, 1959(1925)) is a classic appeal for the "direct method". Palmer refers to Berlitz, Gouin, Sweet and Jones in his introduction, and claims to have been more influenced by Berlitz than other authors, although he severely criticizes the quality of the English in the Berlitz textbook (PALMER, 1959(1925):3-4).

Palmer stresses the importance of speech throughout:"The foreign student taking his English Lessons is primarily concerned with English as Speech." (PALMER, 1959(1925):9) There are also modern suggestions in connection with the

teacher's classroom language (PALMER, 1959(1925):23-31). The bulk of the book consists of oral exercises very similar to those which we still find in modern textbooks for beginners. This applies particularly to the sections entitled "Conventional Conversation" (PALMER, 1959(1925): 59-139). There is also a series of "action chains" (PALMER, 1959(1925):254-282) which are basically drills based on actions which can be carried out in the classroom. Palmer acknowledges a debt to Gouin, who developed a teaching system of this kind in France in 1880.

Palmer's work can be seen as a direct forerunner of English Sentence Patterns (LADO and FRIES, 1957) and Hornby's Guide to Patterns and Usage in English (HORNBY, 1975). His approach is uncompromisingly direct (oral) without being conversational or "communicative" (see 4.4).

2.2.4 1945 to the early sixties

Although the influential periodical Praxis des neusprachlichen Unterrichts was founded in 1953, a recent selection of reprinted articles (FREUDENSTEIN and JÄGER (eds.), 1978), included only one article printed before the early sixties. This article deals with the perennial problem of grammar (LEONHARDI, 1957). Leonhardi refers to Fries and Hornby in his article.

The German books on ELT methods reviewed by Sundermann for the period 1948-1964 could be broadly described as enlightened traditional in approach, with the exception of Leisinger's Der elementare Fremdsprachenunterricht (LEISINGER, 1965(1949)), which deals specifically with English teaching in Volksschulen, and suggests "Vormachen, Nachahmen und Üben"(LEISINGER, 1965(1949)) as appropriate activities for pupils in these schools. However, he also refers to the teaching of "the conversation method", by which he means dialogue practice of common expressions in "everyday situations". He is very suspicious of free-ranging conversation, which he sees as having no definite aim, and also as having no element of repetition which could make it valuable for the learner (LEISINGER, 1965

(1949):32, 76-78).

Over twenty books on methods and principles of teaching English published outside Germany during this period are reviewed by Sundermann. There are references everywhere to speech and speech habits, and to exercise forms such as pattern practice, substitution tables and drills. There are also occasional references to a situational approach (e.g. in Morris, The Art of Teaching English as a Living Language (1956) (p.96), ref. in SUNDERMANN, 1966:85-8), or to a contextual method (Corder, English Language Teaching and Television (1960) (p.101), ref. in SUNDERMANN, 1966:99-102).

Conversation as an objective in second language teaching plays a completely insignificant role. In his English as a Foreign Language (1961), Gatenby states that it is very important to teach students how to keep a conversation going (refs. in SUNDERMANN, 1966:67-69), but this is just a passing reference. The only evidence of an awareness that conversation is a different kind of activity from producing English sentences, and that it will have to be taught in its own right is in a short article by Abercrombie (ABERCROMBIE, 1953-54). This author points out that real conversation does not consist entirely, or even mainly of question and answer chains, and goes on to show how effectively the "short answer" can be used as an extremely flexible form of comment, to "avoid silence" when a standard answer is not appropriate, e.g. as a response to a statement or an exclamation (ABERCROMBIE, 1953-54:4). The following examples are taken from Abercrombie's article. The curved lines are intended to show the intonation patterns.

Teacher:	Answer:
It's a cold day.	It ⌣is.
I hardly saw anything.	⌢Didn't you?
The French can cook wonderfully.	⌣Can't they!
I'm hungry.	You ⌣aren't!

(ABERCROMBIE, 1953-54:11)

The reasons why spoken English is not the same thing as conversation are discussed by Abercrombie in a later article (ABERCROMBIE, 1963-64). He states categorically that "When we use the phrase 'spoken language' without further qualification, it is to conversation that we should

be referring." (ABERCROMBIE, 1963-64:11). In fact, other uses of spoken language are usually being referred to when we use the term. Abercrombie's article deals mainly with first language uses of what he calls "spoken prose". The position taken in the present study is that specifically second language kinds of spoken prose or language-like behavior (SPOLSKY, 1966) are being taught in German schools, rather than the ability to take part in a conversation.

2.2.5 The mid-sixties to the mid-seventies

The reasons for this view of spoken language become clearer as we enter the "modern age" in ELT in Germany. The decision to make English a compulsory subject for all pupils in secondary schools, which marks the beginning of this period (1964), has already been referred to.

The standard work on teaching methods in these schools in the early years was Gutschow's Englisch an Volksschulen (later Englisch an Hauptschulen), which originally appeared in 1964 (GUTSCHOW, 1970). Spoken English as an objective is treated by Gutschow in three different ways:

1. as one of the "four skills": "Dem Verstehen folgt das Sprechen: der Schüler versucht nun, die ihm vom Lehrer vorgesprochenen Wortfolgen nachzusprechen."(p.24)

   i.e. Speaking English = reproducing English sentences.

2. as the ability to perform a part in a memorised dialogue: "Read a phrase or a sentence silently, then look up and say it as if speaking to someone. Do not speak while looking at the book. Ideally practice should be done in pairs, each student taking both parts, X then Y, or Y then X."
   (p.38 Gutschow is quoting from WEST, 1963:8)

   i.e. Speaking English = speaking a part in a dialogue which as been learnt by heart (as a preparation for "das freie Sprechen")(p.38).

3. as the ability to use the spoken language for conversation, not as "spoken prose" (Gutschow quotes from Abercrombie 1963-64 to support this view) (p.152).

   i.e. Speaking English = using English as it is really used in authentic conversation.

(The reference to the third use of spoken English above comes from Gutschow's remarks on television in schools. He is arguing that technical aids are necessary in order to develop an acceptable conversational style.)

Lohmann's review of objectives in English for beginners as laid down by the syllabuses ("Richtlinien") of the various German Länder reveals widespread agreement on a basically situational approach (LOHMANN, 1969:9).

Cladder's book on English didactics which was printed at about the same time on the whole confirms the trends referred to above (CLADDER, 1968). Cladder defines the primary objectives of English teaching in the Hauptschule as follows: "Für die Hauptschule besteht das Ziel des Englischunterrichts in Kommunikationsmöglichkeit und Befähigung zu sozialem Kontakt." (CLADDER, 1968:45). However, the gulf between this ideal and reality is revealed by the lack of an integrating element in the list of areas of study which begins the next chapter (CLADDER, 1968:49). Here pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar are listed, but there is no mention of communication. A situative approach applies mainly to introducing new material in a meaningful context, if possible one in which the children can learn by doing (CLADDER, 1968:54-55). The word conversation does not appear in the index.

In 1970 a group of ELT experts in Dortmund put forward a programme for textbook analysis (HEUER et al., 1970). The list of criteria contains references to:

- authentic language (p.2)
- speech in situations (p.2)
- the provision of an acceptable context for dialogues (p.3)
- a balance between conventional grammar exercises, pattern practice and "kommunikationsnahe Übungen" (p.3)

The attitudes to the spoken language expressed in Lorenzen's standard work on teaching methods are similar (LORENZEN, 1971):

- Speaking (combined with the ability to understand spoken English) is treated as the primary skill, and to some extent as an end in itself (p.97, p.212-3).

- Correct pronunciation is vitally important (p.213-5).
- Speech should be practised in everyday situations (p.215-217).
- Pattern drills, pattern practice and substitution tables are very important exercise forms (passim).

The purposes for which speech is used play a relatively minor role.

By the early seventies the old battle to have the foreign language spoken in the classroom had been won. The question as to what it should be used for at a basic level would have been answered in terms of situational teaching. As Piepho has pointed out, this term was used in various ways (PIEPHO, 1976:51). It sometimes referred to speech material dealing with the pupil's own situation, or to providing some kind of situational framework for otherwise conventional grammar exercises, or, as we have seen, to providing a context for the introduction of new lexical material. In most cases, however, it referred to dealing with "everyday situations", usually by asking pupils to memorise their roles in short dialogues.

The word "kommunikationsnah" as used by Heuer et al. in their list of criteria is perhaps indicative of the modest expectations of the time. Students could prepare for real communication in the English lesson, but not normally reach this stage in school. Lado expressed a similar view (LADO, 1964:113), and it is implicit in much of the literature of the next few years.

If conversation were taught at all, it would be taught in "The 'Conversation' Lesson" (BAIRD, 1967-8). This title implies that conversation (the form) like communication (the intention) was seen as outside and to some extent beyond the normal range of objectives in the English lesson. A very popular grammar school textbook of the day, for example, printed quite realistic examples of dialogues in everyday situations at intervals, but there was absolutely no attempt to integrate this material into the course (e.g. BEILHARDT et al., 1969:79-80). The word conversation does not appear among the generally used terms in the Richtlinien reviewed by Piepho in the mid-seventies (PIEPHO, 1976:68).

2.2.6 The mid-seventies to the present day

Glaap's summary of the Richtlinien in Nordrhein-Westfalen (GLAAP, 1975) revealed that it had by this time become self-evident (cf. ARNDT, 1970a:25) that the pupil's ability to communicate in the second language (often combined with the wish to "emancipate" him) was the principal objective of FLT. Piepho's book Kommunikative Kompetenz als übergeordnetes Lernziel im Englischunterricht (PIEPHO, 1974) was instrumental in bringing about this change in what was self-evident although, or perhaps because the author adopted a fairly extreme position (see also 4.4 below).

In the Reallexikon der englischen Fachdidaktik (SCHROEDER and FINKENSTAEDT (eds.), 1977), the skills and the ability to use them are integrated into the overriding objective "Fähigkeit zur Kommunikation in der Fsp." (SCHROEDER and FINKENSTAEDT (eds.), 1977:"Sprachunterricht").

Lorenzen brought out a new edition of her book on teaching English, in which a section of communicative English teaching had been added (LORENZEN, 1977:421-444). Gutschow also brought out a new edition of his book on teaching methods (GUTSCHOW, 1978b), but his attitude to the new objective remained sceptical (GUTSCHOW, 1978b:16). A group of researchers who analysed textbooks for the teaching of German as a foreign language applied communicative criteria to the books under consideration, and found most of them wanting in terms of communicative exercise forms, and suitable language for dealing with everyday situations (MANNHEIMER GUTACHTEN, 1977:27-29, 41).

New textbooks for the teaching of English in Germany (e.g. Good English, FRANZEN et al., 1976-1980, English in Action, MOSTON, 1978), were quick to adopt an integrated communicative-structural approach of the type later suggested by Allen, Johnson and others (e.g. ALLEN, 1979, JOHNSON, 1979, LEE, 1979), and also put into practice in English publications such as Starting Strategies (ABBS and FREEBAIRN, 1977).

The publications of the Council of Europe, which was attempting to produce minimal lists of language materials for spoken communication at a basic level, were also very

influential (see 4.3 below).

Modern school grammars (e.g. MACKIN and EASTWOOD, 1980, WERLICH, 1978), include treatment of speech functions. Haycraft's An Introduction to English Language Teaching (HAYCRAFT, 1978) demonstrates convincingly that effective communication is possible even for beginners (HAYCRAFT, 1978:20).

However, at the time of writing, the most popular textbook in Hauptschulen still remains "English H" (FRIEDRICHS, 1970-1975) which, in the early volumes at least, is firmly rooted in the non-communicative pattern practice tradition. A communicative approach based on isolated speech functions could not in any case prepare pupils adequately for basic conversation.

The spoken performance of second language learners in a first language setting has tended to remain poor in spite of improvements in the field of FLT theory. The integration of communicative objectives into language learning syllabuses is nevertheless a step forward. The very difficult process of learning to speak a second language out of its context may become slightly easier in the foreseeable future if:

- a minimal range of speech strategies and speech material for basic conversation is specifically taught (see 4.5.6) and
- natural first and second language learning, and the role of the first language in learning the second are taken into account (see 4.6).

The foundation dialogues are intended to provide suitable speech material for basic conversation. One reason why German pupils find it difficult to converse in English is that this kind of material has simply not been taught.

It would be illusory to imagine that the mastery of a foreign language (i.e. here the ability to converse in it at a basic level) will ever become easy. It will remain what it has always been: "ein hohes Ziel" (HEUER and BUTTJES, 1978:3).

2.3 Attitudes to changing FLT objectives

In the ELT field in Germany, Viëtor's appeal "Der Sprachunterricht muß umkehren (VIËTOR 1965(1882)) is by far the most famous call for a change in direction, but the new approach to English teaching embodied in the textbook English for Today (DENNINGHAUS et al., 1965-9) also represented a rather similar appeal in some ways, as did Piepho's influential book Kommunikative Kompetenz als übergeordnetes Lernziel im Englischunterricht (PIEPHO, 1974).

However, it is important to point out that no new approach has ever changed English teaching as drastically as its supporters may have hoped. No new approach can ever be the complete "answer". There is no complete answer, and to claim that there is one is to devalue everything that has gone before in a totally unjustifiable manner (cf. MINDT, 1977:119-122).

Even when there is every appearance that major changes are taking place, the great majority of teachers will be carrying on very much as before. This is just as well, because the supporters of a new approach are virtually bound to overstate their case in order to get a hearing. The wholesale adoption of, for example, the "communicative approach" would certainly do more harm than good, as a number of commentators have pointed out (e.g. MANS, 1976, MINDT, 1978, MÜLLER, 1977, SALIMBENE, 1980).

When a new approach has been tried out in an extreme form, and has failed, there is always a risk that the pendulum will swing right back again (cf. Bebermeier's appeal for a return to "Hauptschulenglischunterricht" in BEBERMEIER, 1979: 144). This kind of "back to basics" appeal is understandable, but just as sad in some ways as the refusal to listen to new ideas in the first place.

As Mindt points out (MINDT, 1978:120), a "new" approach is likely to be far less original than it may at first appear in any case. This does not alter the fact that the time has to be ripe for a new idea to take root. Firth's prophetic remarks on conversation, for example, did not really come

into their own until the 1970's (on conversation) "... it is here we shall find the key to a better understanding of what language really is and how it works". (FIRTH, 1964: 69. Similar ideas are expressed in FIRTH, 1964(1937) and in ABERCROMBIE, 1953-4 and 1963-4)

The most we can hope for is that when the pendulum has stopped swinging, it will have stopped in a slightly different place. As the debate on "communicative competence" begins to ebb, at least in Europe, its strengths and weaknesses have become clearer.

A functional progression which could replace the traditional structural progression did not materialise. There is fairly general agreement that a combination of structural and functional priorities is most likely to lead to success (ALEXANDER, 1977, JOHNSON, 1979).

Perhaps a majority of teachers would now be worried if they found themselves practising a structure for its own sake without reference to meaning or use. If this is the case, there has been a definite step forward. We have all become more aware of the significance of Spolsky's famous distinction between "language-like behavior" and "knowing a language" (SPOLSKY, 1966:124).

It is not difficult to predict the next small step forward. We have almost certainly reached the point where some awareness of the special nature of conversation is likely to find its way into the classroom, perhaps by way of Let's talk, and talk about it (EDMONSON and HOUSE, 1981). The dangers of introducing some of the findings of discourse analysis into the classroom over-hastily can easily be imagined. Nevertheless, as with "communicative competence", there is definitely something to be gained from this field of research. It would be a step forward, for example, if teachers came to realize how important the concept of appropriateness is in normal conversation (HYMES, 1972:277, KASPER, 1975:62-66). It would be equally important to realize that the role of fixed and semi-fixed expressions is much greater in ordinary conversation than is generally realized at present (see 4.5.4 and 5.2.2).

It is not hard to predict some of the objections to the limited changes in the curriculum which greater emphasis on conversation would eventually make necessary. Voices from the Hauptschule would say, as always, and with every justification, that the pupils in its classes have more than enough problems with English anyway, without adding something new and complicated. Objections from the Gymnasium would probably be along quite different lines. The importance of conversation would be admitted, but only as one among many text forms which pupils need to master. This argument would be sound if it did not mean in practice that conversation would be largely ignored.

One more general objection to teaching conversation is less likely to be voiced by teachers, although it is in fact a powerful factor working against change. The traditional content of the school English course is a more or less familiar body of knowledge which it is relatively easy to teach and test in normal-sized classes. Within the education system it seems to matter very little that high marks can be obtained in English by students who have mastered this knowledge, but who do not in fact possess the ability to converse in English with any degree of freedom. To be "good at English" means to be good at doing the things which are done in the English lesson.

Many teachers would themselves have difficulty with English conversation, partly because of the nature of the training they have received. An extended stay in an English-speaking country is not a compulsory element in the course of study for future English teachers in Germany. No teacher is happy teaching something he or she has not fully mastered. This would be a further factor working against the teaching of conversation.

Teaching basic conversation during the first two to three years of the English course would not involve great changes in the present syllabus. Modern textbooks have already begun to develop in this direction. However, any attempt to make authentic basic conversation the <u>main</u> objective for the first phase of the English course would probably meet with resistance from all types of secondary school at present.

Most learners, however, and not only those in school, would be quite happy if they could "get by" in English after two or three years of English lessons. A large discrepancy exists between the meaning of the name of the subject as it is generally understood, and what is actually taught in its name.

2.4 Spoken English and the textbook

As systematic in-service programmes are a utopian dream at present, and as language teaching journals are only read by a minority of teachers, the main point of contact between theory and practice outside the teacher training faculties of the Universities and the "seminars" for young teachers on probation is the textbook. The teacher's handbooks for the textbooks and the standard books on teaching methods (e.g. GUTSCHOW, 1970, LORENZEN, 1971 and 1977) could be seen as supplying the "how", whereas the textbooks supply the "what".

An analysis of some of the more modern textbook series in use in German schools (e.g. BEILE et al., 1974, FRANZEN et al., 1976, MOSTON, 1978) would reveal a surprisingly large area of consensus, even between editions for different school forms. However, the sense of a really clear, integrated plan is usually missing. The impression is rather of a mixed bag of "vocabulary", "grammar", "exercises", "speech acts", "Landeskunde" etc. The authors have tried to steer a tricky course between too much and too little. They have tried to find something for the book to be "about". They have worried about "productive" and "receptive" elements. And they have tried to meet the requirements of as many different sets of "Richtlinien" for the various Länder as possible. They have not, as a rule, had a clear idea of exactly what should go into the book before starting work.

It would therefore be dangerous to assume that there is very little need for experiment at the beginning of the course, although teachers often claim that work with beginners is both rewarding and successful, especially when compared with what happens in the seventh and eighth classes. It could equally well be argued that the seeds of later discontent are already being sown in the first two years of English, but that the results only become obvious later.

The reasons for this discontent are not entirely the same in the different school forms. For the Hauptschüler we can distinguish two main strands:

- the feeling that after two years of English he should be able to use the language, but can't.
- the gradual realization that the textbook does not take

him seriously as a "consumer" of English. It is impossible to stress too highly the dangers of trivial content in the English book. For the Gymnasiast there is also a danger that the content may be trivial, and that he will be frustrated by his inability to use the language in a meaningful way, but there is an additional factor which applies particularly in this school form:
- the feeling that he has been deceived about the nature of the subject. Instead of the relatively pleasant situative approach of the first two years, he suddenly finds himself being forced to get down to "real" school English, which still means "grammar". Most class tests are usually grammar tests until a long way up the school. It is perfectly clear to pupils that this is the aspect of English which really matters in school.

In spite of this stress on grammar, it remains relatively rare for university students of English to be reasonably reliable in their use of past tense and present perfect, for example. Yet it was assumed at some point in their careers that they "knew" these structures, and could safely go on to something more advanced. These "advanced" structures are so rare (WIDDOWSON, 1971), that the effort expended on getting pupils to produce them is a waste of time, quite apart from the fact that this approach often amounts to a distortion of the language, and is likely to destroy any interest in it which pupils may originally have felt. In many Gymnasien the essential distinction between structures which one may see very occasionally in original texts, and those which are in constant use in conversation, is not always made. It is claimed here that a great deal of acceptable English can be generated from a small range of structures, provided that they are well taught, and that the right ones have been chosen.

It has long been accepted that very common words and structures should be taught first, even though, at more advanced levels, older ideas of "completeness" tend to reassert themselves, particularly, as we have seen, in the structural field. While no one would question the importance of a wide recognition vocabulary for reading purposes, it is worth asking whether the best possible range of basic lexical items for conversation is being taught. A glance at the vocabulary

section of any current textbook will reveal that words are still being taught overwhelmingly as single words. The idiomatic and semi-idiomatic collocations which play such an important role in any ordinary conversation are largely ignored. This criticism applies even to the Council of Europe lists (see 4.3.4 below). We have no hope of teaching conversation successfully if we continue to ignore this essential component.

In the relatively recent past speech functions have found their way into pre-syllabus materials and textbooks. However, attention has tended to focus on the more obvious performative speech acts, with the result that any attempt to write a normal conversation using a typical speech act list as the basis would reveal important omissions (see Appendix 2).

It is not surprising that the very complex field of discourse analysis has not as yet had very much influence on pre-syllabuses and textbooks. This is mainly an L_1 area at present, except for research involving advanced learners (e.g. Edmonson et al., 1977). However, the typical move/response treatment of speech acts is just as artificial and remote from conversation as the standard structural drill. Ways of introducing those elements in conversation which can only be dealt with satisfactorily at the discourse level (see 4.5 below) will have to be found if real progress is to be made.

In this study it has been claimed that one essential pre-requisite for a basic English course is a set of lists containing the minimal elements for conversation derived from a series of dialogues specially written for this purpose. Everything else, i.e. the receptive elements of the course, which would have to provide most of the motivation as simple conversation is not in itself very interesting on the printed page (it becomes interesting in use), would be left to the authors' discretion.

Judged purely by their effectiveness in providing the elements of conversation, the standard English courses in use in German schools at present do not focus clearly on this objective. They include all kinds of things which are not necessary for conversation. They also fail to include a good deal which is necessary. To begin more advanced work, either written or spoken, on these shaky foundations, is

an extremely questionable undertaking.

To sum up, then, it is possible to isolate a number of ways in which, in many schools, future lack of success is already being programmed in the first two or three years of the course:

1. Although there is usually a good deal of pupil talking time, an analysis of what pupils are actually saying would reveal that much of it is in fact "spoken prose" (ABERCROMBIE, 1963-4), or "language-like behavior" (SPOLSKY, 1966:124). Even nowadays, for example, pupils are frequently asked to "answer in a full sentence", whether this would be normal in speech or not. In any case, as has frequently been pointed out (WULF, 1978, EDMONSON, 1979), questions and answers in the classroom are often very different from those outside it.

2. The grammatical structures selected are those which will be required for writing the language rather than speaking it. The grammars in use are often based on written corpora (e.g. LAMPRECHT, 1971:16. All the sources listed are written - mainly novels and plays 1930-1965). There is also a tacit assumption that the structural ladder should continue inexorably upwards. It is high time that this assumption should be seriously questioned.

3. In practice everything is supposed to be learnt. The distinction between receptive and productive skills is not made. In some schools a tape recorder, let alone a video recorder, is a rare sight. Readers tend to be used as light relief rather than as an essential element in the course.

4. A "communicative approach" often means practising speech acts in isolation. This is just as remote from conversation as the question and answer techniques used to practise grammar. The important question about the appropriateness of a particular form is often not asked. I want is frequently taught earlier and more thoroughly than I'd like, for example. For many teachers I'd like is an example of "Konditional 2", and therefore "advanced", whether pupils are actually likely to have difficulty with it or not.

5. "Situational teaching" sometimes means that children memorise their roles in playlets, and can rattle off a telephone conversation or a chat round the teatable in grand

style. As a rule the ability to "think on one's feet" which is so essential a feature of any real conversation, is not taught. As a result, the slightest variation in the dialogue is likely to cause a breakdown. There is always a danger that playing a role will mean playing someone else's role. It is not surprising, therefore, when questions about a pupil's own opinions are met with embarrassed giggles. This is not something they have learnt to talk about as a rule. They can talk about the Pims or the Coopers, but not about themselves, except at a very rudimentary level.

6. Pupils in all school forms learn limited amounts of carefully-selected vocabulary, often without even having to make a conscious effort. They do not learn the special kind of vocabulary which occurs in the spoken as opposed to the written language, in particular colloquial collocations. The question of how they might learn to use this kind of material in conversation practice hardly arises at present.

It seems logical to assume that the almost total absence of help with the characteristic forms, elements and strategies of conversation must be one of the main reasons why pupils find conversation in their second language so difficult. Of course success would depend at least as much on methods as on materials, but without the right materials success is impossible. It would be no more difficult to teach "simple" conversation than it is to teach "simple" grammar. There is no reason to assume that pupils who had learnt the necessary elements would not then be able to use these elements creatively. In fact, experience in English courses for University students of other subjects suggests that only very weak students attempt to read the dialogue material as it stands. The others use it flexibly as a basis for what they want to say, and consciously try to integrate collocations etc. which they were not taught in school into their repertoire.

3. Norms and approximations

3.1 Choosing a norm

Where several different varieties of a particular language exist, it is self-evident that one of these varieties should be chosen as the productive norm for a particular group of second language learners. The relevant definition of variety here is "a different form or kind within a general category" (Collins English Dictionary). It is equally obvious that a standard variety should be chosen, i.e. (for English), a "variety of the English language which is normally employed in writing and normally spoken by 'educated' speakers of the language. The term Standard English often refers to grammar and vocabulary (dialect) but not to pronunciation (accent)." (TRUDGILL and HANNAH, 1982:1, authors' emphasis).

The two main varieties of standard English are British English (BE) and American English (AE) or North American English. The term North American English can be used to include both the US and Canada (TRUDGILL and HANNAH, 1982:2). Social and regional differences within the two main varieties are not relevant here. Pronunciation is also excluded from this study (and not directly included in Trudgill and Hannah's definition of standard English). However, the "RP problem" will be dealt with briefly below. It is assumed here that ordinary learners should base their speech production on one standard variety, but that they should learn to understand a relatively wide range of spoken English, including the other standard variety, and at least mild forms of common regional and social variations.

The term British English is used here to refer to standard grammar and vocabulary plus a neutral or slightly regional educated accent (e.g. the kind of English spoken by many younger radio and television announcers in Britain), not the socially-limited RP accent used by a small élite, and referred to by Trudgill and Hannah as EngEng to distinguish it from a more broadly-defined BE pronunciation (TRUDGILL and HANNAH, 1982:2).

According to Quirk, the emergence of an international language has little to do with conscious choice of a language felt to be particularly attractive on linguistic grounds of any kind: "It was not for their intrinsic qualities that - in their time - Latin, Arabic, and French achieved international currency. It was the influence of their speakers, their culture, and their political power. So it is with English." (QUIRK, 1978:20) English is therefore the logical choice of second language for most German schools.

The choice of a variety of English as a norm for productive work is less clear-cut. A number of factors are involved:

- Political considerations alone would lead to the selection of the dominant variety on a world scale, which is AE. Four fifths of the world's native speakers of English speak North American English (STEVENSON and BRUNT, 1979:165-6). The international companies in Germany are mainly American, not British.

- Geographical considerations would lead to the selection of BE, as it is very much easier and cheaper for German pupils to travel to England than to America. However, more German tourists have travelled to the US than to Britain in the past few years, so this factor is by no means decisive (DIE ZEIT, 25 JULY 1980). The numbers of British and American native speakers living in Germany, excluding members of the armed forces and their dependants, are more or less equal (WESTDEUTSCHE ALLGEMEINE ZEITUNG, 24 JULY 1980).

- Psychological factors would lead to the selection of a variety which was as close to German as possible, on the grounds that this kind of English would be easier to learn. Following Solmecke, we can call this model "deutsches Lehrerenglisch" (SOLMECKE, 1979:16). Approximative language systems are discussed later in this chapter.

- Emotional factors, in a Germany where jeans, boardsailing and "Dallas" are, in one way or another, quite important, would probably result in the choice of AE. Hermann's study, which is limited to England on the grounds that textbooks and EFL publications deal mainly with England, cannot help us here (HERMANN, 1978).

The decision to teach BE for productive purposes in German schools can be defended (see, for example KULTUSMINISTER NRW (ed.), 1973:3, LORENZEN, 1977:180), but the choice of BE is by no means the foregone conclusion it would have been a century ago. It is very important that outdated ideas about the superiority of the RP sub-variety of British English are finally laid to rest (STEVENSON and BRUNT, 1979).

This study is also based on BE, because of the situation in Germany, and the nationality of the author. However, as neither Britons nor Americans can claim the English language for themselves, and as learners are not necessarily best-served by a too-specifically British or American version of the language, a flexible approach is essential. It is reasonable, for example, to attempt to exclude BE-only elements from a British-based model (to be keen on something was not included in the foundation dialogues for this reason, because mutually acceptable alternatives were available).

Quirk believes that the factors which have tended in the past to make geographically separated varieties of the same language mutually unintelligible in the course of time (as happened with proto-Germanic), no longer apply to English in the electronic age (QUIRK, 1978:34). There is evidence to suggest that, if anything, the differences between the main varieties of English are becoming smaller and that, in particular, BE is becoming more like AE (QUIRK, 1978:34). The lists of contrasted AE and BE terms traditionally dealt with in German textbooks are based on a "tidy" view of differences between the two varieties which is remote from reality (STEVENSON and BRUNT, 1979).

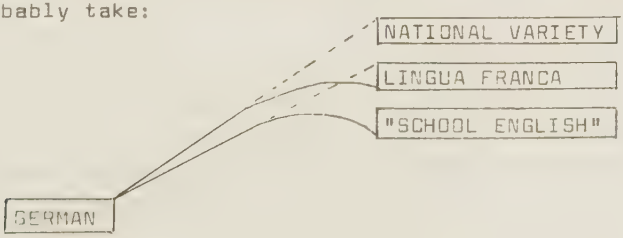
If highly-colloquial, intimate native-native speech is left out of account, we can safely say that educated British and American native speakers have no problems in understanding each other. Cases like the spanner (BE) - wrench (AE) issue, which came up when Americans read the dialogues, are very much the exception. The telephone conversation (dialogue 27) was the only case where a whole conversational phase (see 4.5.1 below) was rejected by American informants. The

reasons for this rejection were at least partly cultural.

It is interesting to speculate on the feasibility of adopting a lingua franca norm. This would have the advantage of avoiding purely national features from the start, but as there are no native speakers of English as a lingua franca, problems of the type which Esperanto has always had to contend with would be inevitable. The view taken here is that lingua franca versions of English should always be considered as learner languages, whereas the learner target language should be based on a simplified but acceptable national variety (see also the following sections). Support for this position comes from Abbott, who is dealing with Malaysian English, an example of a new English (NE):

"... it seems likely that ... the distance established between the TL and NE was a workable one: that is, the amount of difference between British English and Malaysian English ... was not enough to disrupt the sorts of communication in which the TL was used by one party and the NE by the other. In other words, it may well be precisely because of the recency of such contacts that the NE is intelligible beyond the national boundary. Perhaps it was the tension - the striving towards an internationally intelligible dialect - which established the working approximations which have gained status as new Englishes. Take the tension away by establishing the interlanguage itself as the target, and the MT pull may well increase, drawing the NE farther and farther away from the parent English, thereby restricting its range of intelligibility." (ABBOTT, 1981:2)

The following diagram is an attempt to adapt Abbott's thinking to the German situation, making use of the three kinds of target which Solmecke has suggested may be found in German schools (SOLMECKE, 1979). Straight lines indicate objectives, curved lines indicate the path which learners will probably take:



The diagram shows how "striving" towards a higher target can draw the English of learners upwards, even though the original objective remains unattainable. The diagram implies that only a target with at least some "national language" characteristics will result in an internationally intelligible lingua franca learner language.

The language of the foundation dialogues lies somewhere between national variety and lingua franca on the diagram. It is hoped that the acceptance of a realistic simplified objective of this kind might result in a smaller discrepancy between learner target language (input) and learner language (output) than is usually the case (see 4.6 below). In terms of the diagram, this would mean a flatter curve, symbolising a more efficient learning process, and less frustration for students.

This desirable state of affairs could only be achieved if a) learners felt convinced that what they were learning would really function in real-life situations, and b) the language of the pre-syllabus were acceptable. The first of these conditions is complex and well outside the scope of the study. The second condition is discussed in 3.3.

3.2 Approximative language systems

"An approximative system is the deviant linguistic system actually employed by the learner attempting to use the target language." (NEMSER, 1971:116). Nemser's term was selected as the heading for this section because it covers the whole range of learner languages, including those which have ceased to develop further towards the target language.

The language of the foundation dialogues is also approximative in that it is deliberately restricted compared with the conversation of native speakers. It is in fact a classroom target language of the type referred to by Heuer: "The classroom target language is the body of learning objectives for one specific course with its teaching stages." (HEUER, 1980:78)

The process of language acquisiton and possible consequences for the modelling of the learner target language are discussed in 4.6.2.3 below. Here the characteristics of approximative language systems are the main concern.

3.2.1 Learner languages

The realization that learners' errors might represent more than the failure to learn the target language properly came relatively late in the history of FLT research (HEUER 1980:79). In the late sixties Corder, having made the now familiar distinction between (random) errors of performance, which he calls mistakes, and systematic errors, went on to emphasise the significance of errors: "A learner's errors, then, provide evidence of the system of the language that he is using (i.e. has learned) at a particular point in the course (and it must be repeated that he is using some system, although it is not yet the right system). They are significant in three different ways. First to the teacher, in that they tell him, if he undertakes a systematic analysis, how far towards the goal the learner has progressed and, consequently, what remains for him to learn. Second, they provide to the researcher evidence of

how language is learned or acquired, what strategies or procedures the learner is employing in his discovery of the language. Thirdly (and in a sense this is their most important aspect) they are indispensible to the learner himself, because we can regard the making of errors as a device the learner uses in order to learn." (CORDER, 1967:167)

Corder uses the term transitional competence for the learner's knowledge of the target language at the stage he has reached along the road to full mastery of the language (CORDER, 1967:166). The assumption is that the learner will proceed steadily along the road towards this goal.

Corder's reference to the learner's built-in syllabus at the beginning of work in this area (CORDER, 1967:166) indicates that it would be pointless to attempt a clear-cut distinction between the study of learner languages on the one hand, and language acquisition on the other, although the study of learner languages has its roots in error analysis, while the much older interest in language acquisition began with the study of young children acquiring their first language (see references in LANE, 1962).
According to Nemser, three assumptions can be made about the learner's approximative system at each stage in its development:

"1. Learner speech at a given time is the patterned product of a linguistic system L_a, distinct from L_s and L_t and internally structured.
2. L_a's at successive stages of learning form an evolving series, $L_{a1...n}$, the earliest occurring when a learner first attempts to use L_t, the most advanced at the closest approach of L_a to L_t (merger, the achievement of perfect proficiency, is rare for adult learners).
3. In a given contact situation, the L_a's of learners at the same stage of proficiency roughly coincide, with major variations ascribable to differences in learning experience." (NEMSER, 1971:116)

Nemser mentions a number of stable approximative systems which stop developing well short of the target, e.g. typical immigrant speech, the utility systems or "little" languages which are used by people in service industries who frequently

have to deal with foreigners, and the learner pidgin which is used by students whose interest in the language has shifted from form to content before the forms have been fully mastered (NEMSER, 1971: 117-118). This is likely to occur when the target language is being learnt in a target language community, as a result of pressure to do more with the language than the student is yet capable of (ADJEMIAN, 1976:308, RICHARDS, 1972:165). He will need the past tense, for example, before he "gets to it" in formal instruction, and is forced to find a way of expressing it which is unlikely to be standard. If this form functions, it may not be corrected later.

All these approximative systems have in common the fact that they do not develop further because they do not need to, and contain elements not to be found either in the learner's first or target language.

Selinker introduced the term fossilization to describe the process by which certain errors become a permanent feature of a second language learner's approximative language (SELINKER, 1972). For the approximative system itself Selinker used the term interlanguage. He suggested that only a very few exceptional adult learners ever acquire full native mastery of a second language, a view shared by Nemser, and that they succeed because they are able to reactivate "the latent language structure which Lenneberg describes" (SELINKER 1972:212). (For Lenneberg's views on language acquisition see 4.6.1 below.) Selinker believed that this exceptional kind of learner cannot have been taught a second language in the usual way, since the rules involved are too complicated to learn (SELINKER, 1972:212-213).

An interlanguage is the partial competence which is all the great majority of learners will acquire. It is a "separate linguistic system"(SELINKER, 1972:214) lying between the learner's first language and native use of his second. One of its most marked features is fossilization (Selinker, 1972: 215). Fossilization may occur in any part of the learner's language system. Even when it seems to have been eradicated at a more advanced stage of learning, unusual circumstances of some kind are likely to cause backsliding. The phenomenon

of fossilization tends to confirm the existence of a separate latent psychological structure for adult second language learning (SELINKER, 1972:229).

Selinker lists five processes which he regards as "central to second-language learning" (SELINKER, 1972:216-221):

language transfer (L_1 rules etc. occurring in L_2)

overgeneralization (L_2 rules assumed to apply too comprehensively)

transfer of training (applied to deficiencies which occur as a result of faulty teaching. Selinker's use of this term is non-standard)

strategy of second-language learning (strategy used to solve specific linguistic problems arising from learning a second language, e.g. simplification of complex rules, sentence structures etc.)

strategy of second-language communication (strategy involving use of non-standard forms which function adequately in communication)

Adjemian lists three processes which he regards as unique to interlanguage systems, fossilization, backsliding (following Selinker), and permeability (ADJEMIAN, 1976:308-11). If a learner is unable to express a concept clearly in his interlanguage at its present stage of development, structures from the L_1 may "permeate" the interlanguage structures, or may force the learner to distort the rules of the interlanguage in some way. Neither of these processes is typical for L_1 language use.

Richards adopts a basically similar position to Selinker, but he also makes the very important point, implied but not developed in Selinker's article, that forms exist in approximative languages which do not "parallel either the native or the target language" (RICHARDS, 1971:16). In a later article Richards extends the range of the term interlanguage to cover "immigrant language learning, indigenous minority varieties of English, pidgin and creole settings, local varieties of English, English as a foreign language" (RICHARDS, 1972:159). As Corder points out, similar features have also been observed in child language acquisition studies (CORDER, 1975:208).

The concept of interlanguages or approximative language systems can thus be seen to cover an immensely wide range of non-standard language use. Certain types of error and the strategies which produce them (e.g. simplification, over-generalization of L_2 rules) seem to occur fairly consistently right across the range. It is quite possible that universal language learning strategies are involved.

3.2.2 Pidgins and foreigner talk

"Classic" pidgins are the languages spoken by subject populations in order to communicate with their foreign masters. A jargon, on the other hand, arises between more or less equal trading partners who do not have a common language (FOX, 1977:41).
A pidgin takes most of its vocabulary from the dominant language (MOLONY et al., 1977:11). The structures and the handling of lexical and phonological material are generally agreed to show various kinds of simplification. There is evidence for a certain degree of universality in the strategies of simplification, e.g. loss of inflection and articles, the breaking up of complex lexical items, the use of surface structures generally closer to deep structures than in normal languages (CORDER, 1975: 211, GILBERT, 1977: 48-50, MOLONY et al. 1977, 14-17).

There are no native speakers of pidgins. When the range of social situations covered by the pidgin expands to the point where children begin to learn it, the language is in the process of becoming a creole (RICHARDS, 1972:171-172).

The likelihood of a pidgin developing depends upon the degree of culture contact. The shorter, the more distant and the less complete (in terms of social range) the contact is, the greater the likelihood that a pidgin will develop (HEIDELBERGER FORSCHUNGSPROJEKT "PIDGIN-DEUTSCH", 1975:32). Richards distinguishes between transient varieties of pidgin which disappeared as groups of Swedish, Norwegian and German immigrants to the US were (as a rule) quite rapidly integrated, and persistent pidgins in groups which were not integrated, such as Puerto Ricans and Mexicans (RICHARDS, 1972:160).

As long as the target language continues to play a limited role in the lives of foreign speakers, their approximative version of it will become fossilized at a relatively primitive level. Case studies in the "Pidgin-Deutsch" project make it clear how limited the contact between German and foreign workers often is in Germany (often amounting to little more than shouted instructions above the deafening

noise of machinery)(op. cit., 73). The German which foreign workers are likely to hear will usually be spoken in a fairly pronounced regional accent with dialect forms. They are also likely to be addressed in what is variously described as pseudo-pidgin (op. cit.,85-86) or foreigner talk (FERGUSON, 1975).

The most basic type of foreigner talk can be elicited by asking people how they think some foreigners speak the target language. If informants are asked how they personally would speak to a foreigner, they will be unwilling to produce foreigner talk because of the stigma attached to it (FERGUSON, 1975).

However, it is possible that the wish to "continuously reaffirm the degradation of the foreign worker" (HEIDELBERGER FORSCHUNGSPROJEKT "PIDGIN-DEUTSCH", 1975:86) is not always present, even when quite extreme forms of foreigner talk are in use. One of the researchers in Heidelberg states categorically that in typical factory situations "eine effiziente Verständigung im Arbeitskontakt (ist) nur durch gegenseitig angenäherte rudimentäre Kommunikationsformen möglich" (op. cit., 96). There is no alternative to the pidgin - pseudo-pidgin form of communication, given the conditions.

The mere fact that hyper-correct forms (in the interests of clarity) and pidgin forms are used by German speakers in typical contact situations does not in itself indicate the wish to demonstrate social superiority. Other features, such as actual abuse or orders given in a peremptory and impolite way would be necessary to demonstrate that pseudo-pidgin were being used for this purpose. There is no shortage of evidence that foreign workers are on the whole considered inferior (op. cit., 86, MEISEL, 1977:188). However, at least one example of transcribed conversation between a German and a foreign worker would seem to indicate that the speech partners are attempting to communicate on more or less level terms, doing their best to solve the problems which arise pragmatically as they go along (HEIDELBERGER FORSCHUNGSPROJEKT "PIDGIN-DEUTSCH", 1975: 89-92).

It is generally agreed that a sliding scale of foreigner talk is available to native speakers. According to their assessment of the social position and linguistic ability of the foreign speech partner, they will employ different linguistic strategies at different levels (FREED, 1979:6). (It is interesting to note that the native speaker also accepts that he will have to do more than his share of "maintenance" to keep the conversation with a non-native speaker going (FREED, 1975:12).)

It would be beyond the scope of this study to go into detail on the linguistic features of pidgin and pseudo-pidgin or foreigner talk. However, this area can be seen as generally relevant to the choice of language for basic courses. It seems reasonable to assume that pidgins represent the simplest and most basic form of linguistic communication between speakers of different first languages, and that they are easier to learn than full languages.

An ideal version of English for learners who will normally need to speak the language in a limited range of fairly well-defined speech situations should thus adopt those features of pidgins which are not necessarily non-standard, e.g.

- limited range of vocabulary
- preference for lexical material with a wide range of possible application (MEISEL, 1977:193)
- "analytical paraphrase" (cf. FERGUSON, 1975:10) i.e. the use of several simple lexical items to replace one complex item
- limited range of structures
- the use of linguistic (or para-linguistic) signals to indicate lack of comprehension (FREED, 1975:13, BENEKE, 1975:360-361).

All these features can be found in the simple but authentic or acceptable language of modern textbooks. The key question is whether it is legitimate to simplify specifically in the direction of the learner's L_1. This issue is discussed in connection with the literature on first and second language acquisition (see 4.6).

3.3 Authentic and acceptable English

The Collins English Dictionary defines authentic as: "1. of undisputed origin or authorship; genuine: an authentic signature. 2. accurate in representation of the facts; trustworthy; reliable: an authentic account." The first of these meanings is relatively easy to apply to some kinds of text. A copy of the Daily Telegraph is authentic in this sense, as is a video-recording of News at Ten, or a short story by Hemingway (GERMER, 1981:135). As Maley has suggested, this kind of material should be introduced as soon as possible for receptive work: "For example, a news broadcast might be used in which, for beginners, the task might simply be the identification of place names, but for more advanced students the identification of the comment on each item. In this way authentic language samples can be made accessible to learners from the very beginning stages of learning." (MALEY, 1980:5, my emphasis)

The question of having to judge whether such artefacts are authentic or not could only arise in, for example, the case of an apocryphal short story in Hemingway's style, and is of peripheral concern here. As a rule the authenticity of the material is self-evident, and total: "Es gibt kein almost authentic portrait, kein relatively authentic maple syrup, kein fairly authentic Mayan figurine. Entweder sie sind authentic oder sie sind es nicht. Ebenso kann es keine 'beinahe authentische Sprache' geben." (BEILE, 1981:61, author's emphasis)

However, Beile's final sentence in the above quotation can only be accepted if the writers or speakers concerned are "pedigree" native speakers, with not a trace of bilingualism to confuse the issue. Pride has dealt with the problems of defining "nativeness" in bilingual situations, and come to the conclusion that it is more satisfactory to think in terms of native competence in specific areas: "A bilingual or multilingual speaker may attain native (or close to native) competence in more than one language in certain limited respects yet not qualify, on these grounds, as a native

speaker of each of the languages. Native competence, in other words, is a complex and changing quality, whereas native speaker is an all-or-none label, often dubious (and dubiously permanent) in its application... Suffice it to say that proficient bilingual speakers who selectively switch codes according to domain of use, topic, cultural meaning, etc. may well possess greater linguistic competence in one or more such areas than many native speakers will ever attain." (PRIDE, 1981:143) When a non-native speaker is indisputably better than most native speakers in some specific areas, the authenticity (= genuineness) of his second language is an irrelevant issue.

With this qualification, there is no serious problem in identifying authentic material, and no question about its general suitability for receptive work. This kind of authenticity cannot, however, be considered an adequate criterion for the selection of materials intended as a model for productive work in schools, for two quite distinct reasons:
1. A great deal of authentic native speaker English is totally unsuitable as a model for the learner target language either a) because it is too difficult, b) because it is non-standard (see 3.1), or c) because of its "sheer banality and inconsequentiality" (MALEY, 1980:2).
2. Material which is authentic in the sense of genuine may not have been produced by native speakers at all. A recorded interview in which a German politician speaks English would be a typical example.

The undoubted authenticity (= genuineness) of the interview is of no help whatever in deciding whether the politician's speech is acceptable as English. FLT experts and linguistically naive native speakers would be very likely to disagree on this point, because these two groups are influenced by different factors. The experts would be looking for a good command of structures and vocabulary, whereas the naive native speakers would probably be unduly influenced by the speaker's accent (STEVENSON, 1977). Before the matter could even be discussed, it would be necessary to decide for what purposes the politician needed his English.

The problem of judging acceptability in connection with native speaker English is discussed below.

We are concerned here with material intended as a productive model for English teaching, i.e. material produced with a didactic purpose in mind. Again authenticity of the first kind is not helpful as a criterion. There is also widespread agreement that material produced for didactic purposes cannot be described as authentic in the second sense either, because it is not a reliable indicator of the way in which speakers would use the language if they had not been asked to write a dialogue for a particular situation or simulate it, or told that their conversation was being recorded (GERMER, 1981:135, MALEY, 1980:2, SVARTVIK and QUIRK, 1980:11). The group of authors who launched a textbook analysis programme in the periodical Praxis des neusprachlichen Unterrichts at the start of the 1970's limited their definition of authentic to linguistic correctness and "Kontextualisierbarkeit" (HEUER et al. 1970:2-3, see also MÜLLER, 1970). Here specially-written materials for English teaching will be discussed in terms of their acceptability, following Beile's use of the term acceptable in this way (BEILE, 1981).

As far as spoken discourse in dialogue form is concerned, three degrees of authenticity can be distinguished along a descending scale. Each type of material can be justified within a particular range of use:

1. Fully authentic material
   (participants unaware of microphone and/or didactic purpose)
   The main use of this kind of material is for research into the nature of real-life language use. Selections from this kind of material are also suitable for advanced listening comprehension. The compilers of A Corpus of English Conversation were not always able to ensure that the first condition above was fulfilled, but material produced by a speaker "in the know" has been left out of account (SVARTVIK and QUIRK, 1980:26).

2. Semi- or quasi-authentic material

(one or more participants aware of microphone and/or didactic purpose, but asked to speak normally/elicit normal responses in a real-life situation, or simulate a real-life situation)
Material of this kind will have some of the features of authentic material (see discussion of Weijenberg's research below), but not all. It is likely to be suitable for listening comprehension at intermediate to advanced levels, and research intended to improve FLT teaching materials (e.g. BEILE and BEILE, 1980, WEIJENBERG, 1980). (Germer's distinction between quasi- and semi-authentic texts is not maintained here because, as Germer himself says, it is very difficult to draw a clear line (GERMER, 1981:135))

3. Acceptable material

(specially written by native speakers for didactic purposes, and subject to strict limitations in vocabulary and structures)
This is the kind of material which is normally used to provide the learner target language for productive use, and it will always have to be a compromise: "Es ist die Aufgabe der Lehrwerkautoren und Textproduzenten, ein Maximum an didaktisch-methodischer Effektivität und sprachlich-landeskundlicher Authentizität zu erreichen." (HEUER, 1979:168)

Acceptability depends ultimately upon the verdict of a judge or judges. It is a complex criterion, extremely difficult if not impossible to define in a wholly satisfactory way. As we have seen, expert and naive judges are likely to differ in their assessment of non-native English. These two groups should be able to agree broadly on the acceptability of English intended as a productive model for learners.

The differences between fully authentic material and acceptable material are most striking if the first few chapters of any current EFL textbook are compared with the text of any English language newspaper article. The structural and vocabulary limitations of the textbook material (often

only the verb to be, perhaps about 100 lexical items) would simply not occur in authentic material. But if the book has been written in cooperation with native speakers, other ordinary native speakers are unlikely to find anything in it which they cannot accept. Native speakers with linguistic training will of course notice the limitations in didactic material of this kind, but they should be able to accept it for teaching purposes, too. Their professionally suspicious attitude may make them less suitable as judges. Palmer chose judges who had had "minimum experience with foreign languages" (PALMER, L.A., 1973:44).

There are a number of ways in which judges can be misled. As we have seen, a foreign accent is likely to overinfluence naive judges. The question of accent does not arise in connection with the foundation dialogues.

In some circumstances both linguistically aware native speakers and non-native speakers are likely to prefer "super-standard" forms (i.e. those which are in accordance with prescriptive rules rather than with actual language use) (see, for example, SCHMIDT and McCREARY, 1977). We also know that pupils are often taught to use authentic forms inappropriately, without the teacher, either native or non-native speaker realizing that the material in question is suspect. Winn-Bell Olsen, for example, quotes the following "more or less ... real life" dialogue to demonstrate that a series of short answers as commonly practised in schools is likely to be interpreted by native speakers as a "communication-stopper":

"1. In a Singles Bar

- Live around here?
-- Yes, I do
- Come here often?
-- No, I don't
- Can I buy you a drink?
-- No, you can't"

(WINN-BELL OLSEN, 1980:4)

Teachers usually try to teach these "short answers" to their pupils at a very early stage in the English course, because they are rightly felt to be preferable to the monosyllabic answers which learners would be likely to produce otherwise (see, for example, WALTER, 1977). However, apart from the learning problems presented by these forms (FELIX, 1981), they are not in fact very common in ordinary English, where, "the most usual way of replying to a yes/no question seems to be a reply in which the question is not answered directly with yes or no, but from the answer it is clear whether the question has been answered positively, negatively, or in some other way." (RICHARDS, 1976-77:140) This kind of reply made up about half of all the replies to yes/no questions in the spoken corpus analysed by Richards. Another 20% was made up of replies "containing yes or no together with additional information but without auxiliary or verb repetition." (RICHARDS, 1976-77:140) Standard short answers played a very minor role.

It can safely be claimed that these forms are over-represented in the variety of English usually taught as a second language. It is improbable that even expert native speaker judges would notice a mild degree of over-indulgence or under-representation in didactic materials (LEVENSTON, 1971). It is inevitable that some forms will be over- and under-represented in the language of any native speaker if his idiolect is compared with language use in general. His language would be authentic by definition (or acceptable if he is writing didactic materials), but only material based on large-scale corpus analysis could be described as typical. The various checks and modifications of the original version of the foundation dialogues were intended to remedy this potential deficiency.

Weijenberg has examined the authenticity (= reliability) of dialogues in textbooks for the teaching of German as a second language, as compared with a semi-authentic corpus of standard spoken German, parts of which were specially recorded for this purpose in Freiburg (WEIJENBERG, 1980:27-8). This research reveals further problems with judging acceptability. Although the textbook material is linguistically

correct, it differs from the recorded corpus in a number of ways, some of which are relevant here, for example:

- sentences were shorter in the recorded corpus
- there were nevertheless more subordinate clauses, particularly those introduced by "daß", "wenn", "weil" and "ob" (WEIJENBERG, 1980:101)
- the typical "imperfections" of authentic speech were missing from the textbook material, as were the "repair mechanisms" needed to deal with them (see also SACKS et al., 1974:723-4)
- there were only about half as many fillers in the textbook material as in the recorded dialogues (see 4.5.4 below). The functions of "ja", for example, were much more limited than in realistic discourse (see BALD, 1980, for a parallel treatment of functions of yes and no in English).
- the recorded dialogues were generally more dynamic, i.e. turns in conversation were relatively short (see 4.5.1), and there was more simultaneous speech.

(based on WEIJENBERG, 1980:77,88-91,99-105)

Weijenberg accepts that there may be such a thing as "didactic authenticity" (= acceptability), and recognises that it would not be possible to use fully authentic material as a model for productive purposes. He suggests that very good reasons would have to be given for deviating from authentic discourse, but does not go into detail. This would be the responsibility of FLT experts and textbook authors. He formulates the following general principle: "Je weniger die Texte zum direkten Reproduzieren gedacht sind ..., umso weniger müssen sie adaptiert werden." (WEIJENBERG, 1980:131)

There are three important problems in this section from the point of view of the foundation dialogues. These problems are listed below, with brief notes on approaches to solving them:

1. The acceptable language of the dialogues may not be typical.
   (The dialogues were read and commented on by ten native speakers, all with higher education but without specialised linguistic knowledge. They were also read and commented on by four FLT experts and/or textbook authors.)
2. The constructed language of the dialogues may lack important features of authentic conversation.
   (Fully authentic conversation is not suitable as a model, but discourse features have been deliberately included, e.g. fillers, noun clauses after I think, collocations.)
3. The learner target language of the dialogues has to take the requirements of the linguistic system, and of learners into account.
   (The problem of producing a compromise which is acceptable to native speakers, which functions in everyday situations, but which is within the capabilities of ordinary learners, is central to the study.)

4. Background research areas

4.1 Word lists

Although interest in idioms and structures as essential elements of any minimal version of the language was growing during the thirties, the list which survived and eventually became West's General Service List (WEST, 1953) was the list of lexical items. Le Francais Fondamental (GOUGENHEIM et al., 1964:211-230) added basic grammar to the elements under consideration, but paid far more attention to vocabulary selection. It was really the Threshold Level (VAN EK, 1975) which first took a genuinely less one-sided view of the nature of language.

Detailed histories of word lists have already been written (BONGERS, 1947, FRIES and TRAVER, 1950). It is, however, very relevant here to look at some of the main landmarks in the development of minimal vocabularies.

4.1.1 Early history

According to Bongers (BONGERS, 1947:26-29), early word lists for learning foreign languages invariably concentrated on what was thought to be "a limited vocabulary of most useful words" (BONGERS, 1947:26).

The first example of an "island" vocabulary, i.e. a list of core words which could be used as substitutes for a far larger number of words was Timothe Bright's Characterie: An arte of short, swifte and secrete writing by character, 1588 (ref. in BONGERS, 1947:26-7). Bright introduced this principle in order to keep his shorthand system as simple as possible, but the idea that a great deal can be done with a limited number of words remains a guiding principle in vocab-

ulary selection up to the present day. It is seen in its most extreme form in Ogden's "Basic English (originally developed in 1930, now most easily available in OGDEN, ed. Graham, 1968). The main weaknesses of Ogden's work were that a great deal of ingenuity was needed to use the system, and that utility mattered far more than authenticity. In other words, Basic English was not a basic version of English, but a reduced language based on English without actually being English. Because of Ogden's stress on what could be done with a particular lexical item, Basic English can be seen as a forerunner of modern functional approaches in some ways.

It is also worth mentioning the seventeenth century discovery that in a given text the total vocabulary is likely to be relatively small, and that even within this limited vocabulary, a large proportion of the words will be used only once. This discovery appears to have been made by a Hamburg clergyman, K. Winckler, who published a Greek-German New Testament in which the words occurring only once were marked with a dagger (†). Winckler's New Testament is no longer extant, but a Greek-Dutch version of his work still exists. Quotations from its preface are given in Bongers (BONGERS, 1947:27). Presumably it was believed that the learning of Greek would be made easier if students knew which words they were not going to meet again.

It is only a small step from this distinction to the relatively modern claim that the great majority of words in an ordinary text can be understood by someone who has mastered a carefully selected minimal vocabulary. Bongers, who knew Palmer and was influenced by him, states (BONGERS, 1947:16) that Palmer's 3,000 word vocabulary as listed in the Second Interim Report on Vocabulary Selection (I.R.E.T: Tokyo, 1931. Ref. in FRIES and TRAVER, 1950:56-60) covered 95% of the words in an average text. This line of thought can be traced right up to limitations on the number of words to be learnt in modern Richtlinien.

It has always been recognized that students would not be able to master the whole of a language in a limited time. We now realize that it is not necessary either: "Mit anderen Worten: wenn es aus didaktisch-pädagogischen Gründen nicht möglich ist, eine Fremdsprache als Ganzes zu lernen, ist dies aus linguistischen Gründen auch nicht nötig." (BARRERA-VIDAL, 1977:22)

4.1.2 Kaeding and Thorndike

The first great systematic word-count was F.W. Kaeding's Häufigkeitswörterbuch der deutschen Sprache (KAEDING, 1897). This may well have been the most thorough word-count of all time, and it established the main principles on which later lists were based:

- a large amount of material was analysed (in Kaeding's case a corpus of almost 11,000,000 words).
- a large range of material was covered.
- the value of a word depended on its frequency.

Kaeding was not worried by the problems of defining a word because his list was intended for shorthand writers, who are mainly interested in learning the appropriate symbol(s) for a particular combination of sounds or letters (FRIES and TRAVER, 1950:4).

Obviously Kaeding's list was not of very much use for language teaching purposes. Lists were also produced for the teaching of spelling and to help the blind, but the next major advance was Thorndike's The Teacher's Word Book (1921), which originally contained 10,000 words, but was later extended to 20,000 (THORNDIKE, 1932). Thorndike adopted Keniston's principle, employed in the making of a word list for learners of Spanish, that the range of a word should be considered as well as its frequency.

The range of a word depends on the number of texts in which it occurs, i.e. a specialised word which occurs a number of times in a particular technical text might have a relatively high frequency if that text were part of a corpus analysed for word list purposes, but as it would be unlikely to occur in other texts, its range would be

very limited. Thorndike weighed up the relative importance of frequency and range according to a very complicated system, and produced a list for the teaching of reading which was influential right through the thirties, although it was open to criticism on a number of counts (cf. FRIES and TRAVER, 1950:24), in particular because the choice of material was too heterogeneous, and the credit scheme was subjective and unreliable.

According to Bongers, the range of a word was much more effectively established by de la Court's method (Ref. in BONGERS, 1947:233-239). De la Court halved his corpus material and checked the frequencies of the words in each half. A word which did not occur fairly consistently in both halves of the corpus was deemed to have too narrow a range. De la Court's list was intended to provide pre-syllabus material for Dutch courses in Indonesia. The corpus consisted of general texts (apart from some material dealing with Indonesia), and ranged from children's books to novels. The list is claimed to cover 95% of a normal Dutch text for adults.

4.1.3 Palmer and West

It was in the 1930's that word lists came into their own as an aid to second language teaching. It is very significant that this was also the period when the validity of using frequency lists based on written material for the teaching of spoken English was called into question. From their far-flung outposts (West at one time in India and Palmer in Japan), these two scholars saw the teaching of English as a second language in very practical terms. Palmer, for example, based his 3,000 word vocabulary (Second Interim Report on Vocabulary Selection, I.R.E.T., Tokyo, 1931. Ref. in FRIES and TRAVER, 1950:56-60) on a synthesis of several frequency lists including Thorndike's, and added those words which teachers felt were necessary. As Palmer pointed out, "A foreign student of English basing his studies on vocabularies selected entirely according to objectively-compiled frequency statistics, and having learnt the 1,000 words shown by them to be of the most frequent occurrence, would not be able to count consecutively beyond ten, would not know the name of the language he

was studying, would not be able to say, to write or to read such expressions as *for instance*. Although he would know such words as *grade*, *labour*, *respond* or *section*, he would not know such common words as *somewhere*, *everywhere*, *below* or *twice*. (Palmer quoted in BONGERS, 1947:210)

West was also well aware that "the top layer of any word-frequency list does not yield a self-sufficient vocabulary" (WEST, 1937:434), but his main contribution to the word list debate is perhaps the fact that he clearly saw that a distinction should be made between vocabularies for "learning-to-read" and vocabularies for "learnint-to-speak" (WEST, 1937:437). It is strange that his best-known publication, *A General Service List of English Words* (WEST, 1953), was little more than a new edition of the Carnegie list produced seventeen years earlier by Faucett, Palmer, Thorndike and West (FAUCETT et al., 1936). The introduction to their *Interim Report on Vocabulary Selection* still makes interesting reading, but it also shows quite clearly the quandary in which the authors found themselves as a result of trying to produce a list "for the teaching of English as a foreign language" (their subtitle), based mainly on surveys of written English: "We have included words necessary for conversation, e.g. *Hullo*, *Good-bye*, but have excluded words and usages of a colloquial nature which could not be used in written discourse ..." (FAUCETT et al., 1936:17).

Both Palmer and West supported the idea that there should be a first general vocabulary for all, branching out into special vocabularies later as required. Both were well aware of the distinction between *structure* and *content* words. Both knew that it was impossible to define *word* satisfactorily. Their work would still give reliable guidance on vocabulary selection for *reading* English, although it would be slightly out of date in some respects.

It would not be unfair to say that something approaching an obsession with "words" ran through these publications of the thirties. Writers like Palmer and West were usually wondering how much could be expressed with

a limited vocabulary, expressed, that is, in a written text. They could see that speaking and reading were not the same, but this near-obsession with words on the printed page prevented them from making real progress on this front. In spite of their statements to the contrary, they seem to have assumed in practice that a student who learnt his reading vocabulary properly would also be able to express himself reasonably well in spoken English, although it is interesting to note that the authors of the Interim Report on Vocabulary Selection dismiss the "everyday situations" which language teachers today consider so important in a single sentence: "... we have attached relatively little weight to words which are useful chiefly during travel in English-speaking countries." (FAUCETT et al., 1936:11).

Palmer, whose pioneer work on idiom lists proved to be unobtainable (Ref. in BONGERS, 1947:222-225 - neither the Inter-University Loans Service, nor the British Library, which was approached personally, could trace a copy) saw idioms as "more than simple and uncompounded words and yet less than 'syntax-patterns'." (Quoted in BONGERS, 1947:22) Palmer was not interested in idiomatic usage as an essential feature of conversation.

4.1.4 Word lists since 1940

The further development of word lists has not been by any means straightforward. Thorndike and Lorge (Ref. ' in MORRIS, 1979:22-3) produced an even more comprehensive list, The Teacher's Word Book of 30,000 words (Teachers College Columbia University, 1944), during the second world war. West's General Service List of English Words, which has already been referred to briefly, appeared in 1953. In some ways these two publications marked the end of an era. It only remained to carry out a computer count based on written English. Kučera and Francis duly did this in 1967. (See also Wright's South African word count, WRIGHT, 1965)

The most valuable feature of West's list is that it gives the uses, forms and collocations of each headword. It remains, however, essentially a reading list, while the Minimum Adequate Vocabulary (WEST, 1960: 98-134) is, by West's own admission, an attempt to adapt that part of the General Service List which had been used in a first teaching course so that it was suitable for use as a basic vocabulary for spoken English. A comparison of the General Service List with the Minimum Adequate Vocabulary reveals a number of inexplicable features. The word accompany is in the M.A.V. but not the G.S.L., for example, when go with would surely have been more suitable for speech production at a basic level. The words airport and beach are not in either list. The words border and bus are in the G.S.L., but not in the M.A.V. It is hard to accept Doyé's view (DOYÉ, 1971:27) that the M.A.V. would be an ideal basic vocabulary for German pupils. It would perhaps be an ideal vocabulary for "spoken prose". It seems likely that any attempt to produce a truly general list for spoken English is doomed.

Kučera and Francis' Computational Analysis of present-day American English (KUČERA and FRANCIS, 1967) was based on a corpus of a million words which consisted of 500 samples of approximately 2000 words each. The 500 samples were subdivided into 15 genres. Kučera and Francis claim that their list is "reasonably representative of current printed American English" (KUČERA and FRANCIS, 1967:xvii). The words are listed

in descending order of frequency, and alphabetically. The number of genres and the number of samples (texts) in which each word occurred is also given, so that range is covered as well as frequency. There is no attempt to indicate which uses of a particular word are referred to. According to Morris (MORRIS, 1979:23), this list and the Thorndike Lorge list are used in experiments in psychology. It is unlikely that they could have any real relevance for the teaching of English as a second language.

The view that only speech could provide adequate data for constructing courses in spoken English was the guiding principle for two major projects of the 1950's, one in Australia and the other in France. Corpora of spoken language were collected and evaluated in both cases.

The "français fondamental" team used mainly tape recordings of informal interviews on general topics (GOUGENHEIM et al., 1964:62-66). Most of the recorded material consisted of informal interviews on general topics made in the Paris area. The social and cultural range covered was wide.

The authors claimed that their work contained two innovations. The first was the use of the spoken language. The second was the introduction of a new criterion for the selection of words. Three criteria were taken into account:

> "1.la fréquence des mots dans la langue parlée;
> 2.la recherche des mots disponibles les plus utiles;
> 3.l'empirisme rationnel."
>
> (GOUGENHEIM et al., 1964:13)

Frequency and common sense are familiar criteria. Disponibilité was new. "Tel est le nom que nous donnerons á ces mots d'une fréquence faible et peu stable, qui sont cependant des mots usuels et utiles. Nous les appelons ainsi parce que, quoiqu'ils ne soient pas souvent prononcé ou écrits effectivement,... ils sont à notre disposition .

(GOUGENHEIM et al., 1964:145)

Michea's experiments had shown that groups of children ask to write down the words which first came to mind on a give topic, e.g. at the station, clothes, would tend to write

very similar lists (GOUGENHEIM et al., 1964:146-157). Although the children were specifically asked to include other parts of speech as well as nouns, in fact the overwhelming majority of words listed was nouns, as one would expect. Although disponibilité obviously applies to "content" words which are not nouns, Michea's work shows that it would be hard to elicit them. The concept of disponibilité (or availability, see MACKEY, 1965:183-4) raises severe problems for anyone attempting to compile a basic word list. There is frequently no logical place to draw the line between words which are merely highly available, and those which are also useful enough to be worth teaching. This decision has to be made in connection with every common word field.

Le Français Fondamental also included a grammatical register based on grammatical surveys of various kinds, combined with the results of the survey of spoken French (GOUGENHEIM et al., 1964:215). It thus covered the semantic and structural elements of language. Strangely, from a more modern point of view, terms which occurred only or mainly in conversation were omitted. (The 1959 edition of the material added a few extremely basic items like ah!, eh bien! etc.) "Mots à la mode" were also excluded, for familiar reasons which most compilers of language teaching materials would agree with (GOUGENHEIM et al., 1964:198-199). We can only assume that the authority of the standard written language was still so great at this time that it was allowed to dominate and even distort the results of a corpus analysis of spoken language. The results were intended mainly as pre-syllabus material for the teaching of French in schools and adult education institutions outside France. At that time the teaching of conversation would presumably have played a relatively minor role.

Schonell's reasons for carrying out A Study of the Oral Vocabulary of Adults (SCHONELL et al., 1956) were quite different, although he was equally committed to spoken English for his corpus. The study resulted from the wish to teach English to "migrants coming to Australia from European Countries under the Commonwealth Immigration

Scheme"(SCHONELL et al., 1956:5). The immigrants would need to know "the everyday expressions that he (the Australian worker) used at his work, in his home, during his travel to and from work and in other commonplace situations." (SCHONELL et al., 1956:5)

It was decided to concentrate on the vocabulary of unskilled or semi-skilled workers, because most immigrants would spend their early years in "the worker's milieu" (SCHONELL et al., 1956:15). The corpus consisted of about half a million words collected from 3,000 men and women workers in 1,500 situations. The ratio of men to women was kept at about 2:1 because this was close to the figures for the unskilled and semi-skilled working population (SCHONELL et al., 1956:15). Range was taken into account by calculating the relative importance of different kinds of recorded material (SCHONELL et al., 1956:53-60).

A number of Schonell's findings are of interest to compilers of pre-syllabus materials:

1. About 15% of the words spoken by Australian workers were not in any of the older word counts based on written English. The additional material included "words ... peculiar to oral communication", specifically Australian or workers' words, colloquialisms, words which reflected newer interests than the word lists for written English could have covered, and words which were more important in an Australian setting than might be the case in other English-speaking countries, e.g. creek, paddock (SCHONELL et al., 1956:163-4). The authors were unwilling to classify these words too rigidly, and decided to print them in a single list.

2. More than 12% of all words used were "idiomatic in turn of meaning" (SCHONELL et al., 1956:66). "Perhaps the most striking result of this analysis is the frequency of idiomatic usage in ordinary speech. Workers, both male and female, constantly use phrases, that have a slightly different meaning from their usual one." (SCHONELL et al., 1956:66) A very large number of idioms occurred only twice or

less in the whole corpus, but the most common idioms were very common indeed:

"The ten commonest idioms were as follows:

1. "You know", (frequency 1,599).
2. "Used to", (frequency 803).+
3. "Of course", (frequency 567).
4. "You see", (frequency 545).
5. "I think", (frequency 536).
6. "Up there", (frequency 506).
7. "About (seventeen)", (frequency 451).
8. "Down there", (frequency 441).
9. "I don't know", (frequency 335).
10. "That's right", (frequency 321)."

(SCHONELL et al., 1956:67-68)

+Examples of usage from Appendix III:

Once you get used to it you'll like it..
When we were kids we used to wander all round that district.
His father used to be a farmer.

(SCHONELL et al., 1956:171)

(Sadly, in view of the reputation of the Australian worker for colourful language, 'profanity, blasphemy and proper nouns' were excluded on principle (SCHONELL et al., 1956:44-45).)

3. The various parts of speech occurred in very similar proportions in the Australian lists and other well-known lists based on written English, with the exception of adverbs, which were found to occur much less frequently in spoken English.

For A Word Count of Spoken English, (HOWES, 1966), a corpus of 250,000 words was collected, 100,000 from University students, 100,000 from patients at the Boston Veterans Administration Hospital, and the remaining 50,000 from a single patient. The material from the single patient was used to check stability of word-frequency data for one individual over a period of time. The tables give three frequency figures, one for the full corpus, one for the student material, and one for the hospital patients (HOWES, 1966:573).

9,699 different words occurred in the corpus, over 4,000 of them only once. The situation in which the speech material was collected was invariably the unscripted interview on general topics. Obviously the frequency figures for a few words are untypical, e.g. college for the students or doctor for the hospital patients, but otherwise the count can presumably be accepted as a fair record of frequency and range in fairly recent American spoken English. It

would certainly be worth checking if all the words which occurred more than a hundred times in the corpus had been covered in basic courses in spoken English. On the other hand, Howes' project was not carried out with second language speakers in mind, nor does it give any indication of meanings and uses. A "word" is simply a combination of sounds or letter

The Cambridge English Lexicon (HINDMARSH, 1980) is a recent list produced by collating other major word lists. It is essentially a reading comprehension list linked with the Cambridge First Certificate in English. Although the Council of Europe materials were consulted, there is no mention of spoken English in the introduction.

4.1.5 Criteria for selection

If we ask what a modern compiler of pre-syllabus materials for a course in spoken English can learn from the word lists of the past, the answers can be summarised fairly briefly. There are two main points:

1. Spoken English is different in a number of important respects from written English:
   - A smaller range of words is used.
   - About 15% of different words are used in the first thousand according to frequency lists.
   - There is a good deal of colloquial and/or idiomatic material which occurs exclusively in spoken English.
   - The distribution of the parts of speech remains more or less the same, except that adverbs are much less common in spoken English.

There can be no doubt that spoken English should be used as the basis for any course which is intended to teach students to speak the language.

2. The criteria which were developed for word selection cannot be ignored by anyone working in a related field:
   - frequency
   - range
   - "disponibilité" (availability)
   - coverage
   - learnability

(cf. MACKEY, 1965: 176-190)

frequency

An awareness of the importance of teaching common words first has filtered through into English teaching at all levels. It is hardly likely nowadays that anyone would have to learn a very rare word at the beginning of the course simply because it was an exception to a rule (JESPERSON, 1904:22). Current Richtlinien in Germany usually lay down the number of words which should be learnt for productive use, e.g. 800 words per year for the first two years in Gymnasien in Nordrhein-Westfalen (KULTUSMINISTER NRW (ed.), 1978:15). The required number of words is relatively small in all school forms. Textbook authors and teachers are very much aware that they cannot afford to include "luxury" items. The old obsession with drawing a line at some exact number of words has also gone. It is recognized that there is much more to language learning than mastery of a set number of lexical items. In most (but not all) schools, the vocabulary book with its long lists of new words to be "learnt" is a thing of the past.

range

The main importance of the concept of range today is possibly the acceptance of the idea that one particular area of language use, the so-called "everyday situations", should be the main concern for productive work at a basic level (DEUTSCHER VOLKSHOCHSCHUL-VERBAND (ed.), 1977: 32-33). Words which are important within this range will tend to be taught, even if they would be relatively unimportant outside it. There is less willingness to accept that structures which are essential for conversation at a basic level should be taught as early as possible, even if such structures have traditionally come considerably later in the grammatical progression.

disponibilité (availability)

This criterion raises interesting problems for teachers and producers of FLT materials. There is no doubt, for example, that any English child, even one who lives in the middle of London or Birmingham, could name all the main farm animals. And yet, in ordinary conversation it would be possible to survive for months without mentioning cows and pigs unless one happened to be passing a farm. Even then the names of the animals might not be mentioned unless children were present. The same problem arises in connection with every word field, e.g. tools, parts of a car, ship or aeroplane, items of camping equipment etc. There is need for research to establish which words have such high "disponibilité" that any non-native speaker who did not know them would be regarded as generally incompetent. A further problem here is that American English - British English differences will show up near the top of the lists (see the reference pages in 6.1 below). A spanner is a common enough tool in England. In the US the same tool is a wrench. In the dialogues an attempt has been made to list the absolutely vital items in the various word fields on grounds of experience and common sense. Any attempt to draw a line is bound to be arbitrary.

coverage

"The coverage or covering capacity of an item is the number of things one can say with it. It can be measured by the number of other items which it can displace." (MACKEY, 1965:184) It has never been possible to treat coverage scientifically. The problem for the compiler of pre-syllabus materials is to choose one general purpose expression from a given range. This expression should be appropriate in as wide a range of contexts as possible, and easier to learn than the alternatives (see 4.6.3). Lewis has suggested that expressions which do not rely on unusual intonation patterns are likely to be the best choice (LEWIS, 1980a). In the foreseeable future the choice will be mainly the responsibility of native speakers working on the production of FLT materials.

Mackey suggests that words which "include the meanings of other words" should be selected, e.g. seat instead

of chair, bench, stool etc. This is a questionable principle. If the word chair is very high on lists showing availability, as it presumably would be, then an L2 speaker who did not know such an "obvious" word would be regarded as incompetent by most native speakers, as has already been suggested. The same argument can be used against too much stress on definition vocabularies, which contain those words which make it easy to define other words (see Bongers' comments on West's Definition Vocabulary in BONGERS, 1947:176, and WHITCUT, 1978). Basic English can also be seen as a kind of definition vocabulary. It is easy to underestimate the ingenuity which is required in order to use a definition vocabulary effectively. In practice, this is often a game which only native speakers can play. It would nevertheless be well worth while to teach strategies for "getting round" missing words in the student's vocabulary.

However, there is no short cut which can save learners from having to learn the normal words for everyday items. It would seem strange to native speakers if a non-native speaker consistently referred to breakfast as the morning meal (cf. MACKEY, 1965:185). As Firth and others have pointed out, we tend to assume that there must be some special reason for not saying things in the ordinary way. Firth describes ordinary conversation as "A sort of roughly prescribed social ritual in which you generally say what your fellows one way or the other expect you to say" (FIRTH, 1964 (1937):94).

learnability

Mackey points out that the decision to choose the shorter of two alternatives wherever possible in the interests of learnability would mean including the relatively rare word foe instead of enemy (MACKEY, 1965:188). It would also be very questionable to make a special point of teaching students words which appear to have very similar equivalents in their first language. There are often subtle differences in meaning, use, and/or pronunciation which make such pairs of words "false friends". There seems to be a clear case for selecting words on grounds of learnability only in cases where the elements of a

compound are already known, and the compound itself would only present a very slight additional learning load. Mackey's example is handbag for a class which already knows hand and bag (MACKEY, 1965:188). The criterion learnability should thus be considered of doubtful value in practice (see also the discussion of difficulty in 4.6.3).

It has been suggested (see 3.3) that acceptability should be added to Mackey's list as a criterion of overriding importance.

4.2 Simplified readers

4.2.1 Introduction

Although the use of simplified and/or abridged versions of original texts has always been controversial, the genre has been very popular ever since it was introduced by Michael West, who claims that his "New Method" version of Robinson Crusoe, published in 1926, was the first simplified and abridged reader (WEST, 1963-4:146). It is of course possible that isolated attempts to simplify readers were made long before the 1920's, but general acceptance of such "tampering" with literature would have been unlikely during the pre-1914 period because of the widely-held view that a work of art should be considered sacrosanct (HÖGEL, 1978:127-8).

It may be necessary to reduce the length of works of literature for practical reasons, but an abridged version is in itself an interpretation of the original text, and should be considered as such (WEINRICH, 1966). In many of the abridged versions studied by Weinrich, the reductions had been carried out ruthlessly and irresponsibly, or for questionable reasons (WEINRICH, 1966:233-235). West has suggested that the final step before graduating to original works should be to read editions which are abridged, but not simplified (WEST, 1963-4:152-3). Weinrich recommends selecting passages from the full text in class, rather than working with an abridged version from the outset (WEINRICH, 1966:235).

The modern attitude to literary texts in the FLT class could be broadly described as consumer-orientated. Lechler puts forward the view that since most literary works are too difficult for the language learner in their original form, they may as well be read in a simplified version, even if the simplification is so drastic that adapted or retold would be a better description than abridged and simplified (LECHLER, 1969:18). Lechler claims that a drastically simplified version can do no more harm than a translation of the text into German, which might also be "edited" in one way or another. At least the simplified version makes it possible for the reader of a book like Treasure Island to enjoy it in English at the right age

(LECHLER, 1969:18).

However, a comparison of the original of the apple barrel incident in Treasure Island with the version in the Longman's Structural Reader (Lechler, 1969:17-18), makes it clear that the simplified text lacks so many elements of the original that it can hardly be considered as Treasure Island at all.

It is also quite definitely the case that coherence and clarity are sometimes lost in simplified versions, as well as literary quality (MÜLLER, 1968). Students working on the simplified Alpha edition of Clive Cussler's Raise the Titanic (CUSSLER, 1980), in a seminar held by the author in the winter term 1980/81 at the Universität Dortmund, found that the story was very difficult to follow, in spite of the simplified language. It is most unlikely that the less advanced readers for whom the book is intended will be able to unravel its plot or keep track of its characters.

Lechler's attitude has been criticized recently by Schroeder, who points out a number of weaknesses in the Klett Easy Readers (SCHROEDER, H., 1980). Earlier Meyer had compared three versions of Three Men in a Boat, and come to the conclusion that a compromise between originals which are too difficult for the learner to appreciate, and simplified versions which are readable but completely without aesthetic value, is both necessary and possible (MEYER, 1976:533-535).

Meyer's approach is generally similar to that advocated by West (WEST, 1950-51). West gives advice on choosing "plateau" readers, i.e. readers which contain very little language material which is new for a particular class. Some of the questions he raises are still very relevant:

> "Is the book properly placed?" (p.48)
> (West uses "placed" to refer to the relationship between the difficulty of the original and the degree of simplification in the reader. A reader which is well "placed" will not be so drastically simplified that all flavour of the original is lost, nor will it employ a larger vocabulary than is strictly necessary. According to West, most adventure stories could be dealt with adequately within a vocabulary of 1000-1500 words, but it would be "absurd" to try to retell Oliver Twist within a vocabulary of 1000 words.

> The version of Raise the Titanic referred to above is an obvious case of bad "placing". The complex story cannot be dealt with adequately at a 1000 headword level.)
>
> "Is the writer of the book keeping his vocabulary 'stretch' within the limits of inferability?" (p.49) (West suggest that pencil of light would be an acceptable "stretch" of the basic meaning of pencil, whereas the jelly has not set is not a legitimate "stretch" of set = put, but a new lexical item requiring a separate explanation.)

West points out that a teacher should also check that structures are controlled as well as vocabulary, and that it is important to examine the style in order to find out whether sentences are short and uncomplicated, references to the characters are clear, and whether there are allusions which will cause problems for readers who do not share the author's cultural background (WEST, 1950-51:49-50).

Schroeder suggests that only good authors, and representative works by those authors should be included in the lists of simplified readers, since it is questionable to popularise works of doubtful quality, or works which are virtually unknown in their country of origin (SCHROEDER, 1980:85-6).

Müller has put forward exactly the opposite view, at least for the Gymnasium. Teachers in this school form should only use simplified versions of adventure, detective and school stories with their classes. It would be inadvisable to deal with simplified versions of literary texts which pupils might be able to read later in the original. However, this argument would not apply with the same force in the Realschule, and would not apply at all in the Hauptschule (MÜLLER, 1968).

The problems of simplifying and abridging without falsifying and trivialising are greatest with works which are both long and complex. Högel does not consider either of the versions of Moby Dick which he analyzed to be suitable for use in school. Simplified versions of The Adventures of Tom Sawyer, on the other hand, were on the whole acceptable, because most of the vital elements of the original could be maintained, including the comedy (HÖGEL, 1978:131-133).

Unfortunately there are very few works of literature which are simple enough to be read as they stand below sixth form level, and it is very unlikely that recognized authors could be persuaded to write materials for language teaching using word and structure lists. There are, however, a number of original texts on the market which have been specially written for use in school. The advantages of what are here referred to as simple readers to distinguish them from the simplified readers already dealt with, are that they avoid the problems of tampering with an existing work of art, and that they can be written from the start with the interests and proficiency level of a particular group of learners in mind. The main disadvantage is that such readers (e.g. Orton's The Red Mini (ORTON:undated)), are doomed to be well-known only among non-native speakers of the language in which they are written. There is no likelihood that they will ever form part of a shared literary heritage for native and non-native speakers (cf. MÜLLER-ZANNOTH, 1979: 173-4).

4.2.2 Representative series

Authors and publishers of some of the leading series of readers were asked how the vocabulary and possibly other elements in their simplified and/or simple readers were selected:

1.

Publisher Heinemann

Series Heinemann Guided Readers

(A relatively new series containing both simple and simplified readers. There are about 70 titles at present. The books are designed to look like authentic paperbacks.)

Levels 4, between 600 and 2200 words

Target readership

school and adult

Word/structure lists

The editor of the series does not accept any existing word count as scientific, and claims that an "intuitive, commonsense attitude" has been adopted. The differences between vocabulary taught in the main course and reading vocabulary are stressed: "The vocabulary taught in a main course is that of spoken English and, especially in the early stages of a course, is related to things in the students' immediate environment. Reading material, on the other hand, is intended to take students away from their everyday surroundings and so it regularly requires a different set of vocabulary items." (p.18, HGR Handbook)
The attitude to structures is also flexible: "The structure schemes in the HGR Series are complicated because, as has been explained earlier, writers are not asked to apply structure controls rigidly and automatically. Instead, writers are expected to have constant recourse to their intuitive feeling for language and hold a balance between those structures which may be necessary for the telling of a particular story and those which might cause students insurmountable difficulty." (p.12, HGR Handbook)

Further Information

The emphasis is on modern fiction. Some non-fiction titles are also included. The amount of information is controlled as well as the language. There are detailed notes on stylistic features likely to cause problems for language learners. The primary aim is to provide "a selection of books which students are likely to want to read." (p.2, HGR Handbook)

Sources of information

Heinemann Guided Readers Handbook, 1977
Heinemann catalogue 1981: English for schools and colleges

2.

Publisher Klett

Series Easy Readers

(A well-established series of simplified readers from Denmark, containing about 30 titles. According to Schroeder (SCHROEDER, 1980), over 2 million copies have been sold.)

Levels 4, between 500-650 and 2400 words

Target readership

school and adult

Basis for the word list

"Easy Readers sind literarische Werke bekannter englischsprachiger Autoren, deren Texte auf den Grundlagen der internationalen Wortfrequenzforschung gekürzt und vereinfacht wurden, ohne daß der Originalstil darunter leidet." (p.23, Klett Lektüren Englisch) The main lists consulted were the Engelsk/dansk Grundordbog (SALLING and HVID, 1970), and the familiar standard lists (THORNDIKE, 1932, WEST, 1953, WEIS, 1964). A new list which takes into account the Council of Europe materials and other modern lists will be used for future publications.

Further information

A list of structures based on modern materials has also been developed. Testing of the new lists is completed, and the first revised editions of the Easy Readers based on them are beginning to appear.

Sources of information

Personal communication, Jan H. Schmith of Grafisk Forlag, Copenhagen, 1981
Klett catalogue: Klett Lektüren Englisch

3.

Publisher Longman

Series New Method Supplementary Readers

(The first series of simplified readers, originally edited by Michael West. There are about 30 titles, mainly nineteenth and early twentieth century.)

Levels 5, from 500-1800 headwords

Target readership

school and adult

Basis for the word list

West's General Service List of English Words (WEST, 1953).
"The Longman New Method Supplementary Readers (NMSRs) are controlled by vocabulary. The fact that they are still enormously popular today is in part a reflection of the unerringly keen eye

for structural difficulty of their initiator and first general editor, Dr Michael West." (p.10, Longman Guide to Graded Reading)

Further information

Frequency is the main, but not the only criterion: "... a 500-word vocabulary cannot be the 500 most frequently occurring words in the language." (p.11, Longman Guide to Graded Reading).

Sources of information

Longman Guide to Graded Reading, 1977.
Longman Graded Reading Index

4.

Publisher Longman

Series Longman Structural Readers

(A long-established series of simple and simplified readers, containing about 50 titles. Some of the most elementary readers are in semi-comic form.)

Levels 6, from 300-1800 headwords, but there is greater flexibility than with the New Method Readers because the structure list is dominant. The 300-word level in this series corresponds roughly with the 500-word level in the New Method Readers.

Target readership

mainly school

Word/structure lists

"The first (1968) edition of the Longman Structural Readers Handbook had a basic vocabulary list built, like the structure tables, from the common content of several courses. If my memory serves, there was exact comparison of the 5 ELT courses (from various publishers) selling in largest numbers, with a check of half a dozen other courses and one eye on the "AA" and "A" vocabulary of the Teacher's Word Book of 30,000 Words and the high-scoring items of Wests's General Service List. The second (1976) edition made additions and regraded items after comparison of a number of courses published since 1968.

At the moment a third edition is in preparation. Again common content of courses is the criterion for additions, deletions and regrading, but some of the regrading recognizes the two levels of WAYSTAGE and THRESHOLD of the Council of Europe, and some of the additions will be suggested by recently published courses, including one or two based on functional/notional principles. There may also be a comparative study of the Cambridge English Lexicon published last year, though that itself acknowledges a considerable debt to the Longman Structural Readers list." (Personal communication, D.K. Swan of Longman)

(For references to the word lists mentioned above, see 4.1.)

Further information

It is claimed that as structures are so carefully controlled in this series, slightly more new lexical material can be introduced than in other comparable series. The 300 headword level, for example, represents "a small basic vocabulary for free use - items the learner at the stage represented by the structures is certain to know." (p.14, Longman Guide to Graded Reading) "The writer can also introduce the special vocabulary he needs for his story, though there are safeguards to ensure that there is not too great a density of new vocabulary on any one page." (p.15, Longman Guide to Graded Reading)

Sources of information

Personal communication, D.K. Swan of Longman, 1981
Longman Guide to Graded Reading, 1977.
Longman Graded Reading Index
Longman Structural Readers Handbook, 1976

5.

Publisher OUP

Series Steps to Understanding

(This new series is unlike the others referred to here for two reasons. All four books are the work of a single author, L.A. Hill, and all the texts are very short, anecdote-like stories, each of which is followed by comprehension exercises.)

Levels 4, from 750-2075 headwords

Target readership

mainly adult

Word/structure lists

"I began taking a serious interest in grading in 1952-53... At that time, vocabulary selection à la Michael West was out of fashion, and we were told 'use whatever vocabulary the structures demand'.

I never went along with this view, having already had some 12 years' experience in the field: I was sure that vocabulary, particularly the different semantic varieties of a word, and in particular idioms, were as important as grammatical patterns...

For the selection of lexis, ... I have ... used Michael West's General Service List of English Words, with excisions (e.g. limb) and additions (e.g. tank). This has been the ultimate basis of my 2075-headword level.

For my lower levels, ... I started first by selecting structures, and then putting in words and idioms which enabled one to use these. I was very careful to restrict meanings of words and idioms very rigidly (e.g. the back of a chair and my back, but not to back a horse, or the children are back from school, until a much later level).

Gradually, by much trial and error, I modified my word lists until they allowed me to write easily within each. I am constantly revising my lists on the basis of experience, and as a result of changes in the language (e.g. television and TV, refrigerator and fridge, record-player instead of gramophone, etc.). I have also had to modify my lists for my US books, published by OUP, New York."

(Personal communication, L.A. Hill)

Further information

This series is intended to help students read proficiently. Although the short texts are entertaining, they are a means to an end rather than an end in themselves.

Sources of information

Personal communication, L.A. Hill, 1981
CVK catalogue: Oxford English Language Teaching 1981
L.A. Hill, introduction to Elementary Steps to Understanding, Tokyo:OUP, 1980

6.

Publisher OUP

Series Alpha books

(An ambitious new series of simplified readers which already includes over 70 titles. The books are designed to look like authentic paperbacks.)

Levels 1000 and 1500 headwords

Target readership

mainly adult

Word/structure lists

West's General Service List of English Words (WEST, 1953), "slightly altered for our purposes". (Personal communication, Julia Wiesner of OUP) In the "Notes for Adaptors" a list of structures is mentioned, but this appears to play a relatively minor role, as general suggestions for dealing with complex structures are given in the notes themselves, e.g. "b) CHANGE TENSES - Present and future tenses are easier to deal with in some situations. Actions can be put into direct speech or thoughts to avoid the pluperfect at the 1000 headword level."

Further information

The attitude to the original text appears to be rather cavalier:
"If you're cutting out a sub-plot then get rid of all the loose ends. It's better to leave a character out entirely than keep just half of him in. That way you have more spare (sic) for the characters you are keeping."
(Alpha books: Notes for Adaptors)

Sources of information

Personal communication, Julia Wiesner of OUP
CVK catalogue: Oxford English Language Teaching 1981
Advertising leaflets for Alpha books
Alpha books: Notes for Adaptors

7.

Publisher Schöningh

Series Graded Readers

(A series of simple readers specially written to supplement the same publisher's audio-visual textbook series, How do you do.)

Levels 4, between 650-750 and 3000-3400 words

Target readership

school, in particular pupils working with How do you do

Word/structure lists

"When compiling the basic word and structure lists for our Graded Readers teacher's book, we used the structural progression of our HDYD ...
The basic vocabulary ... was based on Englischer Mindestwortschatz Hueber, by Michael West and Hans G. Hoffmann, Grund- und Aufbauwortschatz Englisch, Ernst Klett, by Erich Weis, but also on Haase: Englisches Arbeitswörterbuch and on the Nuffield materials examining the reading habits of 9-11-year-olds. ...
Common sense and experience must enter into the final selection of lexical items for such a list. It is, after all, surprising that in the latest VHS Grundbaustein list of 980 basic lexical items the word 'toothpaste' should figure. Why should this be important for basic communication of adults?"
(Personal communication, Eric Orton)

Sources of information

Personal communication, Eric Orton, 1981.
Graded Readers Teacher's Guide, Eric Orton, 1973

(Publications mentioned only in this section do not appear in the bibliography.)

4.2.3 Relevance for didactic dialogues

As the foundation dialogues are intended as a basis for spoken English, simplified materials for reading are only indirectly relevant. According to the Heinemann Guided Readers Handbook, part of the function of readers is actually to take learners away from the "everyday situations" which will be dealt with in a modern textbook.

The pervasive influence of West's General Service List of English Words (WEST, 1953) is possibly the most striking feature of this brief summary. It is also interesting to note that in almost all the series covered there is control of structures as well as vocabulary, although control of structures appears to be less systematic than control of vocabulary, except in the case of the Longman Structural Readers and Steps to Understanding. Only Hill mentions the problem which West referred to as "stretching" words (WEST, 1950-51:49). Further research would be necessary in order to determine the extent to which the authors of readers are scrupulous in limiting their uses of words to those which are close to the meaning given. There is little point in a reader which is so much of a "plateau" that only material which is well-known is covered, but whereas inferential training is obviously useful in connection with understanding unfamiliar texts (cf. WEST, 1963-4), any attempt to apply similar strategies to speaking or writing a second language will inevitably result in over-generalization (see 5.2.2 below).

Another serious problem is raised by the simple statement already quoted from the Longman Guide to Graded Reading: "... a 500-word vocabulary cannot be the 500 most frequently occurring words in the language." (p.11) If part of the vocabulary of every reader consists of words which are not among the most common at the level in question, the actual number of lexical items in a set of readers at a particular level will be much larger than the figure given by the publisher. This is not necessarily a bad thing, but it does mean that all such figures should be treated with caution. For productive work, the advantages of constantly revising a limited amount of really vital lexical and structural material are undisputed.

The Schöningh readers were written specifically for the German market, and with a particular textbook in mind. Other German publishers (e.g. Schroedel-Crüwell, Cornelsen-Velhagen & Klasing) have adopted a similar approach for some of their readers. It would be worthwhile trying to establish whether German pupils find this kind of reader easier than comparable readers from other series. If this proved to be the case, it would confirm the suggestion put forward in 4.6 below, that it is desirable to cater for the learning problems of specific L_1 learners, rather than developing teaching materials which are intended to be equally suitable for all groups of learners. On the other hand, readers are intended to be a bridge leading eventually to authentic reading materials. They cannot fulfil this function if they remain too close to the English of the English course.

Both Hill and Orton see it as the writer's clear responsibility to modify word lists on grounds of common sense, and in order to bring them up to date. This kind of approach is surely equally valid for the compiler of materials for productive second language work.

It is interesting to note that when word lists for reading have been produced recently (e.g. HINDMARSH, 1980), or older lists modernised (e.g for the Klett Easy Readers or the Longman Structural Readers), the Council of Europe lists have been treated as if they simply provide more up to date materials than West's General Service List (WEST, 1953). In fact the intentions behind this project of the Council of Europe were quite different.

.3 The Council of Europe materials

By far the best-known recent attempt to produce comprehensive pre-syllabus materials for basic English courses is The Threshold Level (VAN EK, 1975). This publication is both a continuation of the word list tradition, and a break with it. There is, for example, the familiar alphabetical list of lexical items. It contains about 1700 entries. It is impossible to be precise about the exact number because several word fields, e.g. the names of countries, national sports etc., are left open, and there are a number of receptive items. In most other respects The Threshold Level breaks new ground. In order to understand the nature of the project, we need to look briefly at the thinking behind it.

4.3.1 Objectives

The Threshold Level was developed with adult learners in mind. The original purpose was to define "the basic level of competence below which the grant of credits was impracticable". It was hoped that the Threshold Level would be accepted as "a kind of standard reference level" for new or established first English courses in Europe (VAN EK, 1975:ii), and that the speech material could provide a "common core" which different groups of textbook authors could take account of in their work (WILKINS, 1973b).

To a considerable extent these objectives have been achieved. A number of modern English courses such as Good English (FRANZEN et al., 1976-80), Impact (WATCYN-JONES, 1979) and Mainline Beginners (ALEXANDER, 1978) claim to have made use of the Council of Europe materials. Follow Me (TOMALIN, 1979) has been designed to bring students up to the Threshold Level in two years. Follow Me is a major project with radio and television tie-ins.

Above all the Threshold Level was intended to meet the foreign language needs of the great majority of ordinary learners: "Nevertheless, by far the largest single group of learners, everywhere, consists of people who want to prepare themselves, in a general way, to be able to communicate socially on straightforward everyday matters with people from other countries who come their way, and to be able to get around and lead a reasonably normal social life when they visit another country. This is not simply a matter of buying bread and milk and toothpaste and getting repairs carried out to a car. People want to be able to make contact with each other as people, to exchange information and opinions, talk about experiences, likes and dislikes, to explore our similarities and differences, the unity in diversity of our complicated and crowded continent."

(VAN EK, 1975:ii)

The tone of this passage makes it clear that the authors believed that the achievement of more abstract socio-cultural objectives would follow naturally from the ability to converse.

The characteristics of this group of learners were described as follows:

"1. they will be temporary visitors to the foreign country (especially tourists);

2. they will have temporary contacts with foreigners in their own country;

3. their contacts with foreign-language speakers will, on the whole, be of a superficial, non-professional type;

4. they will primarily need only a basic level of command of the foreign language."

(VAN EK, 1975:5)

It was accepted from the first that the great majority of learners would never achieve native-like competence in their second language (COUNCIL OF EUROPE (ed.), 1973:12), but it was nevertheless considered very important that

the system should be open-ended: "... at each stage... he (the learner) has both a past history and a potential future history as a learner. Each stage he has reached should enable him to progress further towards a higher stage." (VAN EK, 1973:95)

It was recognized that students would need to be able to understand a wider range of language material than was contained in the lists for productive work (VAN EK, 1975:17), but they could not be expected to understand large variations from the "standard dialect" at this stage (VAN EK, 1975:17).

The following summary makes it clear that the assumed needs of the learners were given the highest priority:

"Our model for the definition of language-learning objectives specifies the following components:
1. the situations in which the foreign language will be used, including the topics which will be dealt with;
2. the language activities in which the learner will engage;
3. the language functions which the learner will fulfil;
4. what the learner will be able to do with respect to each topic;
5. the general notions which the learner will be able to handle;
6. the specific (topic-related) notions which the learner will be able to handle;
7. the language forms which the learner will be able to use;
8. the degree of skill with which the learner will be able to perform." (VAN EK, 1975:5)

The authors laid down no firm lines about the ways in which their objectives were to be achieved. In fact, the whole purpose of The Threshold Level would be seriously distorted if structures and speech functions were not given similar priority.

4.3.2 Elements

The bulk of the main Threshold Level publication (VAN EK: 1975) is taken up with a series of lists covering: situations and roles
settings
topics (plus a behavioural specification of the topics)
language functions
notions (general and derived from topics)
lexical items
grammatical inventory
grammatical summary

It will be seen that these lists overlap to a considerable extent. All the lexical items occur in the expression of notions, but they are re-listed alphabetically for convenience. The grammar is also covered in the lists of notions, but not systematically.

The list of speech functions adds a "third dimension" to the Council of Europe materials (cf. HÜLLEN, 1973). It would not be unfair to say that language use in real situations always played a minor role in the thinking behind the older word lists. It is perhaps in this area that the main contribution of the Council of Europe materials is to be seen. The "communicative approach" was no longer new in 1975, but it was relatively new to blend old and new elements in syllabus design.

Wilkins' introduction of "notions" was intended, among other things, to make it possible to construct similar lists for other languages (WILKINS, 1976). Notional categories are certainly useful as a "checklist" for common concepts, functions, and content areas. It is doubtful whether notional categories are of very much direct help to either teacher or student in the classroom. Wilkins himself seems to share this view to some extent (WILKINS, 1976:68). It is significant that Follow Me (TOMALIN, 1979) uses the now familiar names of speech functions as a principle for grouping material, but does not attempt to introduce notional categories as such.

4.3.3 Further developments

Since the publication of The Threshold Level, two modifications of the original material have appeared. The Threshold Level for Modern Language Learning in Schools (VAN EK, 1976) is a slightly adapted version of The Threshold Level. It was felt that this new target group could be characterized in very much the same way as adult learners, but that written English would inevitably play a more important part in schools (VAN EK, 1976: 10-11). Some of the topics were also changed, but it is pointed out that in the long run schoolchildren are being prepared for their role as adult speakers of a foreign language (VAN EK, 1976: 13-14). It is suggested that a combined functional/ notional and structural approach might be successful in school (VAN EK, 1977a:22-23).

Waystage (VAN EK and ALEXANDER, 1977) is an attempt to present "a possible objective for the first half of courses leading up to Threshold-Level" (VAN EK and ALEXANDER, 1977:2). The authors go on to say that although Waystage should not be seen as an objective in its own right, "it will have to constitute a worthwhile level of ability in that it will enable the learners to cope at least minimally in those communication situations which may be most directly relevant to them" (VAN EK and ALEXANDER, 1977:2). In some ways this document provides a better checklist of really essential material than the much more comprehensive Threshold publication, and it is in fact closer to the original objectives of the compilers. The list of lexical items contains about 1000 entries, whereas the Threshold Level, as has already been said, has about 1700 entries. According to Van Ek, the original vocabulary list was to have contained about 750 "active" items, and 180 "passive" (VAN EK, 1973:103). An earlier target of 500 items had been abandoned as unrealistic.

The recent "Grundbaustein" specification of the German Volkshochschul-Verband (DEUTSCHER VOLKSHOCHSCHUL-VERBAND (ed.), 1980) is intended to be "ein eigenständiges mittelfristiges Lernziel" (DEUTSCHER VOLKSHOCHSCHUL-VERBAND (ed.) 1980:6). It lies between Waystage and The Threshold Level.

4.3.4 Criticism

As well as arousing a good deal of very favourable reaction on both sides of the Atlantic, the Council of Europe materials have come in for some serious criticism. It is worth referring briefly to the main lines of attack, because Waystage in particular is similar in many ways to the foundation dialogues which form the basis of the present study.

- triviality

Hoffmann claims that Follow Me (TOMALIN, 1979), a course very closely associated with the Council of Europe materials, deals only with "banale Äußerlichkeiten", and never gets beyond what he calls the "Vorfeld echter Kommunikation" (HOFFMANN, 1980:5). He goes on to say that this approach is the exact opposite of the old "gymnasial" English course, which turned out pupils who could take part in a serious discussion, but were unable to book a room in a hotel. Hoffmann claims that those adult students who really want to make progress with English will find that there is not enough to interest and challenge them. The others will soon give up in any case.

Lauerbach's view is similar. She sees a danger that a lingua franca approach without any socio-cultural background could easily be sterile, but believes that a good teaching course could counteract this tendency (LAUERBACH, 1979). It would be unreasonable to expect students to master more material in the time available than courses based on the Council of Europe materials contain, but there is no reason why simple structures and basic vocabulary should not be used for talking about relatively serious topics. There is no reason either why the receptive skills should not be trained parallel to the productive skills. It is possible to write narrative and non-fictional texts for receptive work (reading, tape or video) at this level, using only a very limited amount of additional vocabulary.

Hoffmann is asking too much of a basic course in any case. As Walter's research has shown (WALTER, 1977 and 1978), the average pupil cannot talk about anything adequately after several years of English in school. "Banale

Äußerlichkeiten" are not a bad starting point. Someone who has not mastered these will not be able to take the first step in establishing a relationship with a stranger, and will never have the chance to demonstrate his mastery of more advanced discourse. It is doubtful in any case whether there were ever many people who could carry on a serious discussion but not "chat". Personal experience with English teachers in training suggests that as a rule their ability to write essays is not very far behind that of the average student in England, but that conversation on any topic, trivial or serious, is very weak (GÖTZ, 1977, HOUSE, 1979, KASPER, 1981, CASS, 1982), except in the case of those students who have links with England or America, or have had exceptional teaching at some stage in their school careers (see also 4.5.5).

- omission of discourse material

Since a number of publications on discourse analysis were available during the time that the Council of Europe materials were being developed, it is surprising that this relevant field of research was not taken into account. Lauerbach takes a very serious view of this weakness: "Auf der Basis eines auf den isolierten Sprechakt fixierten Modells läßt sich ... keine dialogische Kommunikationsfähigkeit in der Fremdsprache entwickeln ..." (LAUERBACH, 1979a:151). The list of missing conversational elements on the next page does not really take into account that The Threshold Level is intended for beginners, but in principle Lauerbach's criticism is justified. Any ordinary conversation, as opposed to a drill-like sequence of speech acts, would contain a number of elements which The Threshold Level does not cover (see also 4.5). We have to conclude that the compilers took a one-sided view of language use which ignored both the structures and strategies of conversation, and important kinds of communication such as phatic communion (see 4.5.2) or talking about language problems (LAUERBACH, 1979a:152).

One reason for this deficiency may have been that the vocabulary lists were based on existing word lists (see RICHTERICH, 1973:103), in particular the Mindest-

wortschatz of the German Volkshochschulverband, which first appeared in the late sixties (WEST and HOFFMANN, 1968), and is closely related to the General Service List.

Another reason may have been that the framework for the list of speech functions was "largely ad hoc" (WILKINS, 1973:137). As has already been stated, the ideal corpus of spoken English for learners living outside a culture where English is spoken will probably never be recorded and analysed. Some at least of the missing elements in The Threshold Level could have been included if the basis had been conversation on relevant topics, either real or simulated, rather than lists of isolated elements, however carefully compiled.

- inadequate grammar

Christ points out that in the parallel publication for French Un Niveau-seuil (COSTE et al., 1976), the morphology of the verb is not adequately dealt with, although it normally causes serious problems in elementary French (CHRIST, 1977:40). He goes on to say that grammar generally is seen as an "austauschbares Zeichenarsenal" (CHRIST, 1977:41), with the result that the importance of the system for a learner is not given enough weight. This second criticism certainly applies to The Threshold Level as well, but there is no reason why the structures which occur unsystematically in the lists should not be taught systematically. It should be remembered that the compilers of the Council of Europe materials were trying to counterbalance the influence of courses where only the grammatical progression was really important (WILKINS, 1976:2-13). The pendulum may have swung too far the other way. A balanced approach is advocated by Allen among others (ALLEN, 1979). Allen also points out that there has often been a tendency in the past to assume that a communicative approach would follow the teaching of "a basic core of grammar and vocabulary" (ALLEN, 1979:20).

4.4 The communicative approach

The discussion on "communicative competence" in the English lesson has reached the point where an attempt to take stock is worthwhile. It is important here to concentrate on aspects of the discussion which bear on attempts to reduce the amount which is learnt for productive purposes to a minimum.

4.4.1 "Communicative competence"

A central problem throughout the seventies was that the term communicative competence meant different things to different people.

It is a long time since anyone has questioned the general objective that language students should be able to speak the language (PIEPHO, 1973:4). At this time many people would have said they were teaching "communicative competence", and had been doing so all along. Only the name was new (see also 2.2.5 and 2.2.6). However, personal experience in German schools in the early seventies suggested that ordinary pupils in the Hauptschule seemed to be able to "perform" English sentences very fluently, but were completely helpless when addressed personally on even the simplest topics (SPEIGHT, 1973a:45-6). Sometimes whole scenes such as a telephone conversation or a tea party were rattled off very fluently, as an end in themselves. "English" was a closed system which worked very well in the classroom, but not outside it. Even within the classroom it functioned only in limited, clearly defined ways.

The textbooks of the day, e.g. English H1 (FRIEDRICHS, 1970), Let's Learn English 1 (Bob and Jane 1)(FRANZEN et al., 1973(1966), also failed on the whole to stress the need for pupils to use the language for personal expression. Children would often go through an entire lesson using nothing but the third person pronouns. They could tell the teacher everything about the textbook family, but virtually nothing about themselves. It was left to Good English (FRANZEN et al., 1976-80) to ask "How about you?" at irregular intervals from the start of the course.

Piepho was probably right, therefore, when he went on to say (PIEPHO, 1973:4) that there was no general awareness of "kommunikative Absichten und Notwendigkeiten" in the early seventies and before. On the other hand, many good teachers certainly went beyond the textbook and taught their classses not merely "language-like behavior" (SPOLSKY, 1966:24) but how to use the language. They will have insisted that their pupils talked about themselves, worked with open-ended situations, and learnt the arts of persuasion and small talk. It is hard to see real differences between this kind of enlightened situational approach and what has come to be called communicative English teaching. Piepho's earlier article on the meaning of the term situation in elementary English teaching underlines the similarities (PIEPHO, 1967).

The authors of a recent American article suggest that although there is a logical difference between approaches based on situations (or settings) and approaches based on communication (or speech functions), there is so much similarity between the two approaches in practical terms that the distinction should be relaxed (CANALE and SWAIN, 1980:2).

Enough has been said to demonstrate that far less was entirely new in the "communicative approach" than was claimed at the time.

Originally the term communicative competence had nothing to do with language teaching. According to Habermas, the highest level of communicative competence is only achieved when free spirits communicate on equal terms without any kind of restraint. He reserves the term Diskurs for this idealized form of communication. Everyday communication takes place at the level of kommunikative Handlungen (HABERMAS, 1971).

Earlier, the philosopher Austin had pointed out that when something was said (a locutionary act), something was also being done (an illocutionary act)(AUSTIN, 1971(1962):98). Austin also distinguished the perlocutionary act, which has direct consequences beyond speech, and the special case of explicit performative verbs (AUSTIN, 1971(1962):56).

Searle clarified the distinction between "the illocutionary act and the propositional content of the illocutionary act" (SEARLE, 1969:30), and went on to say, "In the case of illocutionary acts we succeed in doing what we are trying to do by getting our audience to recognize what we are trying to do" (SEARLE, 1969:47). A further effect would mean we were dealing with a perlocutionary act.

These pragmalinguistic thoughts found their way into second language teaching in Germany quite quickly (cf. WEBER, 1973), and it was not long before the claim was being made that speech functions should take priority over language structure (PIEPHO, 1973:5). For a time there was a fairly widespread assumption that second language learners would be able to use a language in very much the same way that native speakers do, provided that they practised "speech acts".

At about the same time "Emanzipation" became very popular in educational circles. Dietrich pointed out that the monolingual approach not only made real communication in the English lesson very difficult, it also meant that since the teacher "knew" the language while the pupils didn't, his authoritarian role was reinforced rather than weakened. Pupils had to try to "conform" to linguistic and social norms (DIETRICH, 1973:351-2).

Although the standard middle-class textbook family has long been under attack (RATZKI, 1970), it has remained the norm in all except a few of the English books in general use up to the present day (cf. PIEPHO, 1978:10-11). Reasons for the survival of the standard family in their comfortable middle-class home may have been the more obviously political overtones of the alternative approach, and the fact that "emancipation" has sometimes meant teaching German children to argue with their parents in English, with the parents usually in the wrong (cf. BÜRGER and STARKEBAUM, 1976:10-11).

There can be little doubt that this kind of approach was "wished on" the great majority of ordinary learners. Their needs are generally agreed to be more realistic and more modest (BÜRGEIN and KNÖLL, 1977, QUETZ, 1979:145-6).

"Communicative competence" has meant everything from the ability to take part in discourse at the highest level, to the ability to "stand up for oneself" in an argument, to the ability to recite very simple dialogues or pairs of speech acts parrot fashion.

4.4.2 "Communicative competence" in perspective

Although there have been frequent warnings about the dangers of an extreme "communicative" approach, which would mean in practice concentrating entirely on speech functions at the expense of grammar, critics have not gone so far as to reject the whole concept outright. A typical attitude has been to point out inconsistencies and weaknesses, but in the end to come down in favour of a communicative approach (e.g. MANS, 1976).

Inconsistencies in Piepho's interpretation of Habermas' theories have also been pointed out (MINDT, 1978:346-9). Mindt points out as well that the speech act is not the "übergordnete Einheit" it has tended to be considered as in functional approaches to language teaching: "In der realen Kommunikation treten einzelne Sprechakte nie isoliert auf" (MINDT, 1978:351). Spoken language in the form of conversation involves the use of specific structures and strategies. Expressions with discourse function are needed to link the different parts of a conversation together. It would be a gross over-simplification to think of conversation as a chain of speech acts (see 4.5).

Compromises between the "structural priority" and "speech act priority" schools of thought already exist in various forms (most modern textbook series come into this category). It will be suggested here (see 4.5.6) that the further step towards specific elementary training in conversation is also essential. One compromise, suggested by Wilkins, would be to begin teaching according to a "conventionally grammatical" syllabus, and move on to a "semantic, i.e. functional" approach later (WILKINS, 1976:68).

Very much the same approach is suggested by Johnson, who points out that functional priority in the early stages of the English course, "führt ... automatisch

zu einer ungeordneten und unübersichtlichen Gliederung im strukturellen Bereich (JOHNSON, 1979:25).

Johnson goes on to say (JOHNSON, 1979:26) that the real dangers with a structural syllabus arise later, when the urge to aim at complete coverage of the structures of English (a utopian objective in any case, as has already been pointed out), leads to exercises in which pupils have to produce some very unlikely sentences. The case for teaching the basic structures thoroughly at the beginning of the course, and for making a clear distinction between these and "luxury" structures, is surely unanswerable.

An acceptance of this premiss does not necessarily mean that speech functions should be left until later. Wilkins suggests that the order in which the basic structures are taught might very well be modified, so that essential concepts (e.g. past and future time) could be expressed as soon as possible (WILKINS, 1976:68). Johnson points out that at present, the situations which are selected for teaching the basic structures are often completely unrealistic (JOHNSON, 1979:26). A similar point had already been made by Müller, who examined textbooks in order to find out if credible contexts existed for the familiar type of "textbook" sentence. In many cases only an extremely artificial or far-fetched context could be found. In other words, the textbook authors had really been concerned only to "put structures in sentences". They had not asked themselves whether these structures could also perform a useful function (MÜLLER, 1970).

4.5 Discourse analysis

The great majority of second language learners find it difficult to carry on a conversation in their second language, and even when they think they are doing well, native speakers tend to disagree (DUBIN, 1978:5). This is not surprising, when we consider that what appears to be a "natural" activity in the first language, is in fact extremely complex. We cannot assume that our half-instinctive use of conversational strategies in the first language will automatically be taken over into the second, or even that the same strategies will be appropriate. The specialised kinds of language which we will require in order to put appropriate strategies into practice will obviously have to be learnt, too.

It would be extremely naive to assume that someone who has learnt basic grammar and vocabulary, and even some basic speech acts, will then somehow be able to weld this material together and use it adequately in conversation without further instruction and without intensive conversation practice: "The implicit assumption has been that conversation is simply the oral exercise of skills derived from the study of grammar and vocabulary."(RICHARDS,1980:413) Conversation can only be taught adequately if information in the following areas is available to language teachers:

- the structure of conversation
- the treatment of topics in conversation
- principles and strategies of interaction
- slots and fillers
- conversation in the second language
- minimal conversation for ordinary learners.

Each of these areas is discussed below. The first four are within the province of discourse analysis as defined by Kallmeyer and Schütze: "... die empirische Forschung von sprachlichen Texten, die in natürlichen Kommunikationssituationen hervorgebracht ... werden." (KALLMEYER and SCHÜTZE, 1976:4). As these authors point out, the English term conversation is to some extent limited to everyday casual talk ("chatting" etc.), so that the more general term discourse is preferable in the heading to this section, even though the subject of the study is mainly conversation in everyday situations (KALLMEYER and SCHÜTZE, 1976:4-5).

Interest in second language conversation is a relatively recent development which combines the fields of discourse analysis with the various approaches to learners' errors. The emphasis is on isolating problems, with a view to improving foreign language teaching, particularly at advanced levels.

Chomsky and his followers focused attention on the sentence to such an extent that the artificiality of dealing with sentences in isolation was almost forgotten, in spite of Firth's prophetic statement on conversation: "... it is here we shall find the key to a better understanding of what language is and how it works." (FIRTH, 1964:69) Pairs of sentences are not conversation, whether they are the stimulus and response of the standard laboratory drill, or the speech act and response of much "conversation practice" (EDMONSON et al., 1977b:16), or the question and answer of the English teacher in the classroom (WULF, 1978, EDMONSON, 1979). A dialogue which is memorised and recited is not a conversation either. It may once have been someone else's conversation. Discourse analysis has made considerable progress in finding out "what conversation is, and how it works."

4.5.1 The structure of conversation

Acceptance of the move as the "phoneme of conversation" is fairly general (COULTHARD, 1975:74-5, GOFFMAN, 1976: 272). Two moves by different speakers which belong together are usually referred to as an adjacency pair (SCHEGLOFF and SACKS, 1973:295, RICHARDS, 1980:421), e.g.

"A: Can I have some more coffee?
B: Sure, Help yourself."
(RICHARDS, 1980:421)

The ways in which the moves of different speakers follow one another depend on rules for turn-taking (SACKS, SCHEGLOFF, and JEFFERSON, 1974 (the following page-references are all from this article)). Turn-taking in conversation is probably one aspect of a basic form of human interaction also found in card-games, some types of dancing, and in combat sports (p.696). The fact that children often cannot wait for their turn in conversation confirms that there are rules in operation which have to be learnt, one of which is that there may be cues in what one speaker says which indicate a right to reply for some members of the group, but not for others (698).

People engaged in conversation are in a "state of talk", where at any particular moment one participant is speaking, and there is a "circle of others ratified as co-participants" (697). The conversation is "intrinsically motivating" for them. They need to concentrate on and analyse what the others say in order to be able to participate successfully (727).

Some of the obvious features of turn-taking are as follows:

"- Speaker-change recurs, or at least occurs.
- Overwhelmingly, one party talks at a time.
- Occurrences of more than one speaker at a time are common, but brief.
- Transitions (from one turn to a next) with no gap and no overlap are common. ...
- Turn allocation techniques are obviously used.
- Repair mechanisms exist for dealing with turn-taking errors and violations."

(SACKS, SCHEGLOFF, and JEFFERSON, 1974: 700, numbering omitted)

There are only two types of turn allocation, either self-selection, or A selects B:

"Sy : See Death 'v a Salesman las' night?
Jim : No
((pause))
Sy : Never see(h)n it?
Jim : No.
(704)

In the example Sy self-selects, and also selects Jim as the next speaker. Tag questions are one very common way of selecting the next speaker. Selectors often begin with well, but, and and so (718-9). When overlapping occurs it is usually followed by repair work (706-7), and it is quite possible for two conversations to go on at the same time. Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson quote an example where two people are talking about a new combination of glasses and hearing aid worn by one of them, while another pair are trying to decide whether the salami is dry or not (713). These authors see conversation as "the basic form of speech-exchange system" (730). Other forms, such as debates, therapy sessions and trials, are more or less ritualised transformations of ordinary conversation.

When a speaker has made his move, he may either pass the conversational ball to a speech partner immediately, or initiate a new exchange himself. This double move has been referred to as a back-pair move (GOFFMAN, 1976:272), e.g.

A: Do you want to go out?
B: No, not tonight.] [How about a cosy evening in front of the fire?
(fabricated)

(the square brackets mark the point where a speaker's two moves during a turn in conversation are "back to back")

In real-life conversations the second half of an adjacency pair may appear not to "fit", or it may be separated from the first half by other exchanges (GOFFMAN, 1976). However, we assume that what another speaker has said is intended as a reply to what we have just said, and are prepared to go to considerable lengths to interpret it as such, using all kinds of knowledge (GRICE, 1975). If a

meaningful interpretation is not possible, this will usually indicate mental abnormality of some kind (RICHARDS, 1980:414).

The hierarchy within a conversation or transaction (COULTHARD, 1977:101) can be described in terms of moves, one or sometimes two of which comprise a speaker's turn, which is followed by another speaker's turn. As we have seen, two turns which belong together in a straightforward way can be referred to as an adjacency pair. An adjacency pair is one of the basic types of exchange (COULTHARD, 1977:100). The three move exchange which Sinclair and Coulthard observed in classroom discourse is another typical example (SINCLAIR and COULTHARD, 1975:21).

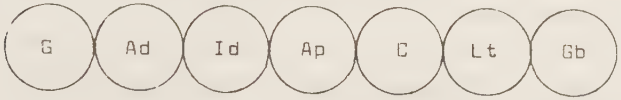
Above this level, a complete conversational transaction usually has a beginning, one or middle sections or phases, and an ending (LAUERBACH, 1980:370). In other words, it has to be organized in the time dimension rather like a poem or a short story.

Schegloff and Sacks have demonstrated that ending a conversation is a difficult procedure for the participants, because the end of a conversation breaks the normal turn-taking rule (SCHEGLOFF and SACKS, 1973:294-5). Before the terminal exchange can take place, there has to be a closing section (SCHEGLOFF and SACKS, 1973:300). One partner will normally realize that the other is leading into the closing section and react accordingly, so that the point is reached where both can say goodbye, e.g.

> "B has called to invite C, but has been told C is going out to dinner:
>
> B: Yeah, Well get on your clothes and get out and collect some of that free food and we'll make it some other time Judy then.
>
> C: Okay then Jack
>
> B: Bye bye
>
> C: Bye bye"
>
> (SCHEGLOFF and SACKS, 1973:313)

Ventola has put forward a model for the structure of complete casual conversations, i.e. the kind of conversation referred to elsewhere as phatic communion (see next section), but also including one or more topics of importance to at least one of the participants (VENTOLA, 1979). He refers

to this model as a casual conversation chain:



(VENTOLA, 1979:274)

(G = greeting
Ad = address
Id = identification
Ap = approach
C = centering
Lt = leave-taking
Gb = goodbye)

In the following example there is no Id because the participants know each other, and the approach is indirect in Ventola's terminology because it is not personal (VENTOLA, 1979:273):

G-Ad

A: Hello, Jean.

B: Hello, Mary. Nice day again.

Ap

A: Yes, isn't it.

B: You haven't seen that son of mine, have you?

A: Yes - he's round the back with David. They're playing with the rabbits. Do you want him?

C

B: No - I just wanted to make sure he was all right. Send him home if he's a nuisance.

A: He's been very good so far.

B: That's a change!

Well, better get back, I suppose.

Lt

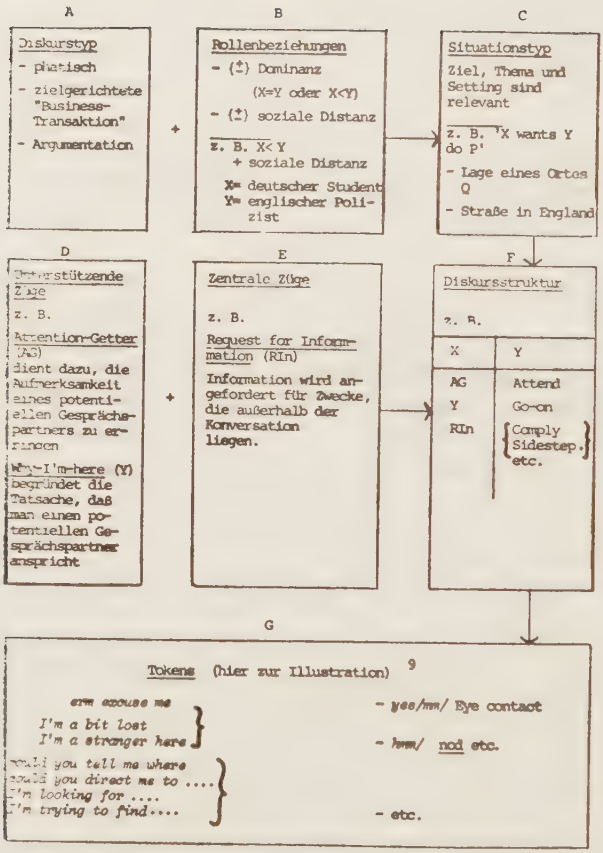
Gb

See you, Mary.

A: 'Bye, Jean.

(fabricated)

Edmonson and House have developed a more complex and flexible model which is similar to Ventola's in some respects. This model is reproduced on the next page for comparison, but not discussed further.



(EDMONSON and HOUSE, 1979:160)

If they are not interpreted too rigidly, models of this kind give very good general guidance on the structure of conversation. The question of links between the phases is dealt with in 4.5.4 below.

4.5.2 Topics of conversation

A conversation has to be "about" something. A distinction is necessary at the outset between the ostensible, surface topic which people appear to be talking about at a particular point in a conversation, and the role which this topic plays in a global strategy for the whole transaction: "Die Beteiligten müssen wissen, was die jeweilige Äußerung "soll", worauf jemand "hinaus will" usw., sonst sind sie für die Beteiligten nicht interpretierbar." (KALLMEYER and SCHÜTZE, 1976:12)

It is therefore impossible to deal with topics without also considering conversational strategies, and ways of realizing these strategies within a conventionalized framework of the type described. The principles which guide speakers in their choice of strategy are dealt with in 4.5.3 below.

The topics dealt with in a conversation are organized in time. This means that choices have to be made partly on a "why that now" basis (SCHEGLOFF and SACKS, 1973:301). A useful term introduced by these authors for a topic which could safely be introduced into a particular conversation at a particular point is a mentionable (SCHEGLOFF and SACKS, 1973:300).

At the start of a conversation, and often near the end as well, ritualised exchanges take place on a range of mentionable topics established by convention, such as the weather (an indirect approach in Ventola's terminology) or the other speaker's health (a direct approach). The mentionable topics for opening exchanges vary from one culture to another: "Thus common questions from Asians on first encounters such as Are you married? and How old are you?, may deviate from topic norms for English speakers, as does the common question from Arabs, How much did that cost?" (RICHARDS, 1980:424). There are no serious problems between German and English speakers in this area, although the weather plays a larger role in British opening phases, and German students are not always prepared to accept that it is worth talking about.

The vital feature of these ritualised exchanges, which since Malinowski are usually referred to as phatic

communion, is that the topic matters less than the social function of the conversation:

"A mere phrase of politeness, in use as much among savage tribes as in a European drawing-room, fulfils a function to which the meaning of its words is almost completely irrelevant. Inquiries about health, comments on weather, affirmations of some supremely obvious state of things - all such are exchanged, not in order to inform, not in this case to connect people in action, certainly not in order to express any thought. It would be even incorrect, I think, to say that such words serve the purpose of establishing a common sentiment, for this is usually absent from such current phrases of intercourse; and where it purports to exist, as in expressions of sympathy, it is avowedly spurious on one side. What is the raison d'etre, therefore, of such phrases as 'How do you do?' 'Ah, here you are'. 'Where do you come from?' 'Nice day today' - all of which serve in one society or another as formulae of greeting or approach?
I think that in discussing the function of Speech in mere sociabilities, we come to one of the bedrock aspects of man's nature in society. There is in all human beings the well-known tendency to congregate, to be together, to enjoy each other's company."

(Malinowsky, quoted in QUIRK, 1962:58)

More recent authors have assigned greater significance to phatic communion than the very general wish to express "togetherness" referred to by Malinowsky, important though this is. Lauerbach, for example, claims that they establish a social framework without which communication would be impossible: "Rituelle Kontaktmuster oder interaction rituals ..., die in der Soziologie und in der soziologisch orientierten Konversationsanalyse untersucht worden sind, dienen dazu, die eigene Identität zu definieren und diese sowie die des Partners zu schützen, und sie bauen dadurch zugleich einen Rahmen der sozialen Ordnung auf, in dem Miteinander-Kommunizieren überhaupt erst möglich wird." (LAUERBACH, 1980:371)

Brown and Levinson add the idea that these "safe topics" are deliberately chosen by one speaker in order to make it easy for the other speaker to agree, with the result that

the area of common ground between the speakers is enlarged (BROWN and LEVINSON, 1978:117). Bald points out that yes occurs far more often than no in conversation, and that no "is more frequently followed or preceded by more speech of the same speaker."(BALD, 1980:185) The principles involved here will be discussed in the next section.

It would go beyond the scope of this study to discuss in detail the ways in which speakers order topics in the "middle" phases of a conversation. One important strategy seems to be "holding off the mention of a mentionable until it can'occur naturally'" (SCHEGLOFF and SACKS, 1973:301). Even native speakers quite often fail to introduce a topic at the most auspicious moment, or conclude a conversation without ever having raised the topic which was the real reason for starting the conversation. Second language learners have additional problems in this area as well. In the early stages, simply identifying the topic is a serious problem (HATCH, 1978:423).

Generally speaking, a conversation begins with "safe" topics, centres on the real business of the conversation, and may introduce other safe material again near the end. A minimal conversation in Ventola's sense of the word may consist entirely of ritualised exchanges on safe topics (VENTOLA, 1979:283). Phatic opening exchanges are mandatory unless some kind of urgency is involved. Brown and Levinson call plain speaking without any polite preliminaries or downtoning bald on record (BROWN and LEVINSON, 1978:99-106)

4.5.3 Principles of interaction

The fact that it is relatively unusual to speak "bald on record" indicates that as a rule all kinds of restraints are in operation during a conversation: "Speech is the act of a willful ego constrained by the necessity of communicating with other members of his group." (ARNDT and JANNEY, 1980:440)

Before we examine some of the more common forms of restraint, we need to look briefly at a very important general principle which seems to underlie all successful conversations: "Make your conversational contribution such as is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged. One might label this the COOPERATIVE PRINCIPLE." (GRICE, 1975:45) One consequence of the cooperative principle has already been dealt with: the way in which we try to interpret any second part of an exchange as a meaningful response to the first half (see also BROWN and LEVINSON, 1978:63). Clearly expectations are very important in helping us to interpret what another speaker has said. Firth described everyday conversation as "a sort of roughly prescribed social ritual in which you generally say what your fellows one way or the other expect you to say."(FIRTH, 1964:94) These expectations are based on the whole range of our knowledge about what people in general or particular individuals usually say in similar circumstances, and on our knowledge of the way things usually function in our society. Grice uses the term conversational implicature for this process of interpretation (GRICE, 1975:43-45).

As Brown and Levinson have pointed out, Grice's famous "maxims" arising from the cooperative principle (GRICE, 1975) should not generally be thought of as applying at the surface level, because they do not take into account the restraints imposed upon us by the need to be polite. Grice's maxims do help to explain what participants are actually trying to achieve in a conversation at a deeper level: "For our purposes, we can treat the bald-on-record strategy as speaking in conformity with Grice's Maxims (Grice 1975). These Maxims are an intuitive characterization of conversat-

ional principles that would constitute guidelines for achieving maximally efficient communication. They may be stated briefly as follows:

> Maxim of Quality: Be non-spurious (speak the truth, be sincere).
>
> Maxims of Quantity: (a) Don't say less than is required.
> (b) Don't say more than is required.
>
> Maxim of Relevance: Be relevant.
>
> Maxim of Manner: Be perspicuous; avoid ambiguity and obscurity.

These Maxims define for us the basic set of assumptions underlying every talk exchange. But this does not imply that utterances in general, or even reasonably frequently, must meet these conditions, as critics of Grice have sometimes thought. Indeed, the majority of natural conversations do not proceed in such a brusque fashion at all." (BROWN and LEVINSON, 1978:99-100)

Restraints are the inevitable consequence of the fact that conversation involves cooperation and interaction with at least one partner (KALLMEYER and SCHÜTZE, 1976:17). As a rule the aims of the conversation cannot be achieved unless the partner is adequately taken into account. It has long been recognized, for example, that the age, sex and status of the partner will have important consequences for what can be said to him or her (see, for example, ERVIN-TRIPP, 1972). In addition, the speech partner has to be "membershipped" appropriately for each topic of the conversation: "During a conversation the same person may be membershipped as a doctor, a rugby player, a liberal, a gardener, a bridge player. Speakers usually membership their friends correctly, but may make mistakes with strangers, and shoppers membershipped as shop-assistants can become very annoyed." (COULTHARD, 1977:82) If a mistake is made in membershipping or assessing relative roles, repair work will be necessary if the conversation is to continue satisfactorily (ARNDT and JANNEY, 1981:438). If these factors are deliberately ignored, the result is a calculated insult (ERVIN-TRIPP, 1972).

As the approach in this study is essentially common core, it is not necessary to go into detail here on differences in style and register as a result of social and other differences

between the participants in a conversation. In any case, researchers have been attempting, with some success, to discover general principles which govern what can be said to whom, and on what occasion.

Arndt and Janney, for example, suggest that interpersonal role relationships can be defined in terms of their positions on two sliding scales or axes, which they refer to as the power and affiliation dimensions: "Interpersonal acts tend to be related asymmetrically on the high/low power axis and symmetrically on the high/low affiliation axis. This would tend to account for a good deal of the consistency with which apologies evoke pardons, pardons evoke gratitude, evasion evokes criticism, contempt evokes resentment and so on." (ARNDT and JANNEY, 1981:446, authors' emphasis)

A fabricated example will serve to illustrate this point:

	power	affiliation
A: Why were you late this morning?	high	low
B: I'm sorry, sir. I missed the bus.	low	low

Although Arndt and Janney's examples are all of this kind (ARNDT and JANNEY, 1981:447), there is no reason to suppose that this is a general pattern. The following example, also fabricated, is not asymmetrical on the power axis, if we assume that the speakers are business men of more or less equal status, who do not know one another very well:

	power	affiliation
A: Shall we stop for lunch now?	low	low
B: Well, you certainly look as if you could do with a break.	low	high

On the other hand, if A's rank was clearly higher than B's, his question could amount to a command, in which case B would have to acquiesce politely, even though, by asking a question, A appears to be leaving B's options open (see also BROWN and LEVINSON, 1978:177-192). Relative differences in power and affiliation, and consequently choices of more or less polite auxiliaries, depend upon "degrees of security, insecurity and interpersonal risk" (ARNDT and JANNEY, 1981:449, authors' emphasis).

A number of experts believe that politeness is the most important factor governing interaction. Lakoff, for example, suggests that "it is considered more important in a conversation to avoid offense than to achieve clarity." (LAKOFF R., 1973:297-8) The author is referring here to informal conversations, not to business or academic conversations where, because clarity is paramount, Grice's maxims will usually apply. Lakoff formulates the following rules of politeness:

"1. Don't impose
2. Give options
3. Make A feel good - be friendly"
(LAKOFF R., 1973:298)

She suggests that in some form these rules of politeness may be a universal feature of "cooperative human transactions" (LAKOFF R., 1973:305). Edmonson and House's "H(earer)-supportive maxim" (EDMONSON and HOUSE, 1981:47-8) is a very similar concept.

Brown and Levinson have produced very comprehensive and detailed arguments in favour of politeness as a vital principle in conversation (BROWN and LEVINSON, 1978). They suggest that there are basically two kinds of politeness, both related to the concept of face. They summarise their argument as follows:

(i) All MPs* have positive face and negative face, and all MPs are rational agents - i.e. choose means that will satisfy their ends.

(ii) Given that face consists in a set of wants satisfiable only by the actions (including expressions of wants) of others, it will in general be to the mutual interest of two MPs to maintain each other's face. So S will want to maintain H's face, unless he can get H to maintain S's without recompense, by coercion, trickery, etc.

(iii) Some acts intrinsically threaten face; these 'face-threatening acts' will be referred to henceforth as FTA's.

(iv) Unless S's want to do an FTA with maximum efficiency (defined as bald on record) is greater than S's want to preserve H's (or S's) face to any degree, then S

*model person

will want to minimize the face threat of the FTA."

(BROWN and LEVINSON, 1978:64-5, authors' emphasis)

The key terms negative and positive face are defined as follows:

"negative face: the want of every 'competent adult member' that his actions be unimpeded by others.
positive face: the want of every member that his wants be desirable to at least some others."

(BROWN and LEVINSON, 1978:67)

Very many acts in a conversation are potentially threatening to the addressee: "By 'act' we have in mind what is intended to be done by a verbal or non-verbal communication, just as one or more 'speech acts' can be assigned to an utterance." (BROWN and LEVINSON, 1978:70) FTA's can threaten either the positive or negative face of the addressee. A speaker may also threaten his own face, as for example when he accepts an offer, which is a kind of debt (BROWN and LEVINSON, 1978: 70-73).

These authors are able to demonstrate that the concept of face can be applied in three very different language communities, although the degree of politeness of course varies, as does the degree to which, for example, offers may be considered as debts (BROWN and LEVINSON, 1978:252).

It is impossible to cover in detail here all the conversational strategies which can be explained in terms of attempting to minimise the effect of FTA's. Instead, brief comments follow on some of the key principles of conversation arising from the wish to cooperate and be polite:

1. Agree if possible

We have already seen that speakers tend to choose "safe" topics on which they can agree, particularly at the beginning and towards the end of conversations. Two strangers getting to know one another could be compared with two people working on the same jigsaw puzzle, which represents the things they find they have in common. The "puzzle" is cautiously and continuously added to as the conversation proceeds.

Agreeing is far less likely to be "face-threatening" than disagreeing. The pressure to agree is so strong that speakers often begin by agreeing, even if their intention is to disagree:

"A: So this is permanent?
B: Yeh, it's 'permanent' - permanent until I get married again.
...
A: What is she, small?
B: Yes, yes, she's small, smallish, um, not really small but certainly not very big."
(BROWN and LEVINSON, 1978:119, numbering omitted)

2. Be indirect

A direct command or request, except in emergencies, or where there is a very clear difference in power, as in school or military situations, is a potential threat. There are a number of ways in which speakers avoid this directness, some of them highly conventionalised, e.g.

"Could you possibly pass the salt (please)?
(BROWN and LEVINSON, 1978:140)

"I'd like to borrow a cup of flour if I may."
(BROWN and LEVINSON, 1978:147)

Or an extreme example:

"Could you possibly by any chance lend me your car for just a few minutes?"
(BROWN and LEVINSON, 1978:147)

A request to borrow something seen as valuable or easily damaged is a severe threat. In such cases it is very common to ground the request (provide a reason for it), e.g. "John, I've got my hands full here at the moment. Could you open the window for me. It's a bit stuffy in here."
(EDMONSON, 1981:123)

A pre-exchange, which may be quite extensive, is also very common:

(a "precious" record collection is involved)
"X: yèah^problem is they haven't got many récords^
Y: yéah
X: Wěll^Sĭmon promised^to take some alŏng^

Y: yéah
X: Well you know Simon's collection and I mean it's virtually non-existent and most of it's absolute rubbish and it's just not the sort of thing they like there
Y: so
X: well (exhalation) well I I wondered I mean er really I don't know how to put this but (inhales) could we take some of yours along

(EDMONSON, 1981:118)

3. Use hedges

"A 'hedge' is a particle, word, or phrase that modifies the degree of membership of a predicate or noun phrase in a set; it says of that membership that it is partial, or true only in certain respects, or that it is more true and complete than perhaps might be expected (note that this latter sense is an extension of the colloquial sense of 'hedge')." (BROWN and LEVINSON, 1978:150, authors' emphasis).

Direct commands, requests, questions and even statements, particularly statements of opinion, are potentially threatening as a rule. There is a strong tendency to tone them down by means of a hedge of some kind, e.g.

"Do me a favour, will you?"

I wonder if (you know whether) John went out

I rather think it's hopeless.

(BROWN and LEVINSON, 1978:150-152, numbering omitted)

4. Use "gush"

In some circumstances, for example when thanking someone, praising someone's cooking, or admiring someone's new baby, conventional exaggeration is expected, or, to use Edmonson's terminology, "gushing is normative" (EDMONSON, 1981:29). A speaker who simply said that food was "nice" or "quite nice" would probably cause offence. If he simply said "I think you can eat it" as a German student did in one of the author's language groups, offence

would be a certainty, unless the hostess decided to interpret the remark as a joke.

5. Show interest/sympathy

This is the classic way of being positively polite, i.e. actively reinforcing positive face, rather than simply trying to avoid offence (BROWN and LEVINSON, 1978:108-111). The degree of risk is slightly greater than with negative politeness, because of the personal element involved (see also VENTOLA, 1979:273). Cultural misunderstandings can arise when this kind of positive strategy is used in a society which values negative politeness (BROWN and LEVINSON, 1978:250).

For a native speaker addressing a non-native speaker, or an older person addressing a younger, this is the classic way to "bring out" the speech partner, and at the same time keep the conversation going:

A: You came on the night ferry, you said?
B: Yes, that's right.
A: You weren't seasick?
B: No, but I was glad to get to Harwich this morning.
A: I bet! (fabricated)

There is a fatal tendency for 'B' speakers in situations like this to give yes or no answers, which make the 'A' speaker's role very difficult (WALTER, 1978). Appendix I contains examples of exercise forms intended to make learners aware of this problem, and help them to solve it.

It is unnecessary to go further than this in a study concerned with first language courses. The issue of how to "take" what another speaker says, for example, is deliberately ignored here, although it is clearly important for one speaker to know if another is joking, or does not intend his remarks to be taken seriously. Goffman uses the term keying for the subtle ways in which speakers indicate how their remarks are to be taken (GOFFMAN, 1976:287). However, to teach a language without dealing even in a rudimentary way with the principles which govern its use in conversation, is a singularly lopsided undertaking.

4.5.4 Slots and fillers

There are some circumstances where people are not obliged to speak to one another (in a lift or a railway compartment, for example), but as a rule people in western societies are expected to avoid "awkward" silences by filling them with speech. This is not necessarily the case in other parts of the world (APPLEGATE, 1975:272-3).

Once two speakers begin to converse, they enter into an unwritten contract. Each speaker is under an obligation to fill the "slots" which correspond with his "turns". Ferguson refers to an experiment which he carried out with his secretary: "I simply did not reply verbally to her good morning. Instead I smiled in a friendly way and through the rest of the day behaved as usual." After two days there was general agreement in the office that there must be something the matter with him (FERGUSON, 1976: 140).

Because some parts of everyday conversations are highly ritualised, producing the right filler for a particular slot is often a more or less mechanical activity, e.g.

A: Lovely day again.
B: Yes, isn't it.
(fabricated)

This means that some slots are generally filled with complete "chunks" of language which a speaker uses to take his turn. Richards refers to these chunks as "institutionalized stems", and gives as examples, among others:

"Wait till you hear this.
I don't want to talk about it.
There's nothing you can do about it."
(RICHARDS, 1980:428-9)

Most, but not all conversations go beyond a phatic exchange of pleasantries for social purposes. The individual moves made by the speakers can then be seen as part of a larger strategy very much as in a game of chess. Complete institutionalised slot-fillers of clause length will obviously become less frequent in the central phases of a conversation, but shorter chunks, referred to in this study as collocations (see 5.2.2) remain very common throughout. According to Sorhus, who

uses the term "frozen expressions" for these collocations, Canadians use one fixed expression every five words in spontaneous speech (SORHUS, 1976-77, 217).

So far two kinds of fillers have been dealt with, longer chunks which fill a conversational slot, and constitute a complete turn or move, and shorter collocations which usually form part of a turn or move. The greatest problems for linguists arise with a third kind of filler: the one or two-word particles like well, you know, you see, ah and oh, which always occur in large numbers in spontaneous conversation, but which defy analysis in conventional grammatical and semantic terms.

Svartvik points out that well has been given all kinds of different labels in those grammars which mention it, and that neither the OED nor Webster's Third New International Dictionary deal with it at all adequately (SVARTVIK, 1980: 168-169). Part of the problem is that "well is virtually restricted to spoken language, where it is one of the most frequent words" (SVARTVIK, 1980:169). This comment could apply equally well to the other fillers in the group, and it is the main reason why grammars and dictionaries based mainly on written language find them so difficult to deal with. As Lawson points out, an interest in fillers serves "neatly to divide off those writers and commentators on language who are descriptivist from those who prescribe" (LAWSON, 1981:2). For the latter group, fillers ought really not to exist. They are fillers in the negative sense, intended to hide the cracks which reveal a speaker's inadequacy, just as Polyfilla hides the cracks in a wall.

A typical positive definition from the descriptivist point of view would be:"Fillers are words, phrases and sometimes just noises like er, which do not contribute much, if anything to the new information content of an utterance, but which perform certain valuable functions in speech" (Brown G., quoted in LAWSON, 1981:2). In order to stress the positive function of fillers in conversation, the relevant heading on the reference pages for the foundation dialogues is expressions with discourse function. The problem with other titles which have been suggested for the expressions in this group including, as we have seen, fillers, is that

they tend to apply to one aspect of fillers, or to refer mainly to one group within a heterogeneous range. It is nevertheless worth referring briefly to some of the better-known suggestions, because each in its way throws some light on at least one aspect of a complicated topic.

softeners

Crystal and Davy have suggested the term softening connectives or softeners for this group of particles (CRYSTAL and DAVY, 1975:92). They deal in some detail with you know, you see, I mean, sort of/kind of, mind you, yes and no, well, and but er. They are able to demonstrate a "softening" effect for the uses of these particles which they deal with, but there is no attempt to cover the full range. (There is perhaps a risk of confusion between softeners and the basically adverbial intensifiers/downtoners such as quite, a bit etc. see QUIRK and GREENBAUM, 1973:131-136).

comment clauses

This is one term adopted by Quirk and Greenbaum, who deal with those expressions which are broadly in the form of clauses, such as I believe, as you know under this heading. Other typical fillers are covered under conjuncts (e.g. anyway), reaction signals (e.g. no, yes, hmm), and initiators (e.g. well, oh, ah)(QUIRK and GREENBAUM, 1973).

gambits

Keller and Warner use gambits as the general term for the whole group of fillers, which they subdivide into openers, links, responders and closers. They state unequivocally: "A gambit is a conversational tool that gets us going" (KELLER and WARNER, 1979, introduction). Edmonson and House also use gambits as the general term, but their subdivisions are uptakers, clarifiers, appealers, starters and asides (EDMONSON and HOUSE, 1981:83). The term gambit as defined by Keller and Warner obviously cannot apply to all the elements in either list of sub-categories, but Edmonson and House's view of gambits in their sense as "hearer supportive devices" (EDMONSON and HOUSE, 1981:69), underlines their key role in conversation.

metastatements

This term is used by Lawson (LAWSON, 1981:4) to describe the treatment of fillers by Sinclair and Coulthard, who see them mainly as markers of various kinds, which put following moves into perspective. For example, in the analysis of the start of a new phase in a lesson, Right is seen as a Framing move, consisting of a head marker (h) and a silent stress (q). The following Now is a starter marker, Focusing attention on the new topic:

Classes of move		Structure of move	Classes of act
Framing	Right ^	h q	marker silent stress
Focusing	Now, what we've just done, what we've just done is given some energy to this pen.	s h	marker conclusion

(SINCLAIR and COULTHARD, 1975:45)

frozen expressions

This is the term adopted by Sorhus, whose sub-categories are:

conventions, e.g. please and thank you

openers, e.g. well

stalls e.g. in other words
(used to hold the floor)

and bids e.g. as you know.
(appeals to the listener)

(SORHUS, 1976-77, my notes)

Sorhus claims that all the fillers used in the Canadian corpus which she studied fall into one of these four categories (SORHUS, 1976-77:213). The categories would have to be interpreted broadly for this to be the case.

It should be stressed that authors tend to be very hesitant about classifying fillers as a rule, and are prepared to admit that they have not been able to cover all the different particles and their uses satisfactorily. In spite of the inconsistencies which this brief survey reveals, we can agree with Lawson that the various approaches have been "ultimately fruitful" (LAWSON, 1981:2).

One very promising approach to the problem of dealing with fillers is to analyse in detail actual occurrences of particular fillers in a corpus of spontaneous conversation. This has been done, for example, by James for (mainly) ah and oh (JAMES, 1972), by Bald for yes and no (BALD, 1980), and by Svartvik for well (SVARTVIK, 1980).

As well is perhaps the classic case of an item whose function "is largely pragmatic and not describable in ordinary grammatical terms" (SVARTVIK, 1980:171), Svartvik's findings will be briefly summarised. He suggests that in Crystal and Davy's treatment of well (CRYSTAL and DAVY, 1975:101-2), intonational meaning has been attributed to the meaning of well itself (SVARTVIK, 1980:172), with the result that the meaning of well is obscured. In Svartvik's data, which was part of the material recorded for A Corpus of English Conversation (SVARTVIK and QUIRK, 1980), two main uses of well emerge (The use of well in exclamations such as "Well, I'm damned" played a relatively small role in Svartvik's data, although this is the use which is mainly dealt with in dictionaries.):

1. As a qualifier, e.g.

   A: He's new here, isn't he?

   B: Well, he certainly wasn't here yesterday.

   Well as used here has the components:

   a) qualified agreement - best answer B can give at present,

   b) new information given/point raised which A may have overlooked.

A: I think it's all right.
B: Well, so do I!
Here well indicates
a) reinforcement, and
b) solidarity with A

A: Which room are they in?
B: Well, I've put them in 23.
Here well is used as a straightforward answer prefix.

A: Are these your books?
B: Well, that one's mine, but the others are John's.
Here well is again used as an answer prefix, but it also indicates that a straight yes or no answer is not appropriate.

(based on SVARTVIK, 1980:173-4, with fabricated examples in the interests of clarity)

2. As a frame
This term is taken over by Svartvik from Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975. Unlike well used as a qualifier, well used as a frame is often embedded in discourse, again with a number of different functions, e.g.

A: Well, let's go on to the next item then, shall we?
Well closes previous discourse and focuses on following discourse. This use is similar to the use of well as a boundary marker in classroom discourse which Sinclair and Coulthard refer to (SINCLAIR and COULTHARD, 1975:63).

A: Did I tell you about the day I spent in Oxford?
B: No, I don't think so.
A: Well, I was a student at the time, and ...
Here A has cleared the way for a story, and the well indicates that it is now going to be

told. Svartvik calls this a "partial shift of topic", and claims that it is not clear that the story is actually to be told until the well introduces it. (It could equally well be argued that "Did I tell you about ..." is a conventionalised starter for a story, and that the well is being used very much as in the previous example. A would be disappointed if B answered, "Yes, you did.")

Two other uses of well in a framing function are as a turn opener in conversation, i.e. as a starter (see EDMONSON and HOUSE, 1981:83). (the distinction between this use of well and well as an answer prefix is not always clear), and as an editing marker for self-correction, e.g. We got there at eight - well, a few minutes later, actually.

(based on SVARTVIK, 1980: 74-76, with fabricated examples in the interests of clarity)

The factor uniting all these different uses of well is that it should be seen as essentially "a sharing device", with a "basic social function" (SVARTVIK, 1980:176). Even though some uncertainties remain (see the note in brackets above), this kind of approach could also throw more light on other important fillers such as "anyway", which have not yet received very much attention.

Fillers have been covered at some length because they are one of the key differences between written and informal spoken language. The absence of fillers in the English of pupils who have only heard the language in school has already been noted (WALTER, 1978). English without fillers inevitably sounds stiff and unnatural. The use of non-standard or "unexpected" fillers will have results which the speaker did not intend.

4.5.5 Non-native speaker conversation

The lack of fillers is only one symptom for the more general problems which second language learners have to face when they attempt to converse. Analyses of conversations involving non-native speakers, which bring these problems to light, are a comparatively recent development. Coulthard's survey of the literature on discourse analysis up to the mid-seventies (COULTHARD, 1975), makes it clear that the relevance of most of the research into native speaker conversation is only of marginal interest for second language teaching at a basic level.

At that time the problems of second language learners in this area were not a major issue. More recently there has been increased interest in non-native speaker conversation. Kasper has dealt comprehensively with pragmatic deficiencies in the spoken English of advanced learners (KASPER, 1981), and Cass has discussed problems of style and register (CASS, 1982). It is therefore only necessary here to deal briefly with some of the kinds of situations in which learners are likely to react inappropriately.

Götz has analysed a conversation in English between three German native speakers and an American lektor. In one of his examples the native speaker says, "O.K. I don't want to keep you too long. I mean ..." This should have been interpreted as the start of a closing section or leave-taking. In fact, the German native speaker replied: "You don't keep me." (GÖTZ, 1977:74-5) Native speakers would normally be able to distinguish between an apologetic first speaker, whose "I hope I'm not keeping you" (present continuous is correct here and in the student's reply above) would have to be answered with, "No, that's quite all right" or something similar, and a first speaker who wants to end the conversation, and suggests that his speech partner may be busy in order to avoid having to say that he is busy himself.

Kasper has pointed out that whereas a native speaker would know what kind of response was expected of him in an adjacency pair, non-native speakers frequently do not:

> Y: uuh I needed that, you know what the rush hour traffic is like
>
> X: oh, tell me.
>
> (KASPER, 1978:45)

In this example, speaker Y would expect sympathetic agreement from speaker X, whose request for information is completely inappropriate.

Turn-taking also presents problems. As Götz discovered, the "Endsignale" which native speakers of English use to show that their "turn" at speech is over, and encourage the other speaker to respond, are missing in his corpus material (GÖTZ, 1977:72-3). The non-native speakers involved tended to produce an inappropriate "haha" instead of expressions such as question tags (see SACKS et al., 1974), which are normally used for this purpose.

Götz also includes an example of a non-native speaker failing to do "maintenance" on the conversation. He is asked questions which are intended to elicit information, but interprets them as yes-no questions, thus transferring the whole burden of "finding something to say" to his partner (GÖTZ, 1977:73-4).

Another approach is to observe what happens when non-native speakers (NNS) have to use their English in "real life situations" as opposed to simulations. Beneke has recorded and analysed a semi-authentic corpus of this kind (BENEKE, 1979b). According to Beneke, a NNS is at a severe disadvantage in any kind of negotiations with native speakers, who deliberately exploit their linguistic superiority once the small talk is over. At the same time the NNS is acutely aware of what he would be able to achieve in his first language, but cannot in his second: "Gerade Fremdsprachenanwender ..., die in ihrer Muttersprache über eine breite Skala sprachlicher Ausdrucksmittel verfügen und die demnach gewohnt sind, ihre Persönlichkeitsdarstellung vor allem sprachlich zu realisieren, müssen sich geradezu verkrüppelt fühlen" (BENEKE, 1979b:239).

A third factor is that native speakers are likely to form incomplete and distorted pictures of NNS as a result of their imperfect command of the language, often as a result of factors working at a subconscious level.

However, there are also a number of positive factors to set against this discouraging picture. Among a group of speakers from different countries who know one another well, for example, socio-cultural norms are not necessarily those of any British or American native speakers present, but are open to negotiation (BENEKE, 1979b:240, 243). Beneke quotes a dialogue in which a NNS uses a simple 'no' as a stone-walling tactic, instead of a more elaborate and polite formulation of the kind available to native speakers. The native speaker partner, who is experienced in work with international groups, is not offended, and the NNS has successfully blocked sophisticated attempts to "talk him round", using very simple means to achieve his purpose (BENEKE, 1979b:257).

When NNS are under pressure in real-life situations, they are often capable of exploiting their limited inventory to the full, and making it function effectively as a means of communication: "Zusammenfassend läßt sich demnach die Sprachvarietät Englisch als Kommunikationsdialekt charakterisieren durch

- idiosynkratische Systemhaftigkeit
- Derivatbeziehung zur Zielsprache
  (i.e. without roots in the target culture)
- Konstrukthaftigkeit
  (i.e. artificial, non-idiomatic)

Vom Fremdsprachenanwender aus betrachtet, ist nicht ihre Defizienz, sondern ihre Leistungsfähigkeit als Kommunikationsmittel das entscheidende Merkmal" (BENEKE, 1979b:244, my notes in brackets).

In spoken discourse the speakers can and do work together to solve the communication problems which arise by means of suggested continuations, paraphrases, definitions etc. Traditional classroom errors play a minor role: "Über die Schwere eines Fehlers entscheidet nicht die Intuition des Sprachlehrers, der sich stellvertretend für den NS entrüstet, sondern die Kommunikationsgemeinschaft" (BENEKE, 1979b:246).

Even the word for word translation of first language idioms, which is normally regarded as taboo, can aid communication and enrich the fabric of the discourse, e.g. "I ran with very large ears through the company" (BENEKE,1979b:250). Paralinguistic features are also important.

Beneke's work has a number of interesting implications for FLT. Learners need vague general words and generic terms, which can help them to avoid breakdowns caused by missing lexical items, and which are often preferable to more precise terms in conversation anyway (BENEKE,1979b:258). They need more literal second language equivalents for idiomatic expressions which they frequently use in their first language (BENEKE,1979b:260-261). They also need strategies for using the available repertoire flexibly and effectively.

4.5.6 Minimal discourse ability

It is obviously unrealistic and inappropriate to try to teach ordinary second language learners all the linguistic games which native speakers play with one another. Reduction and simplification are just as necessary in the field of discourse as they are in connection with grammar and vocabulary.

The common core for productive work would have to include an irreducible minimum of expressions with discourse function if it were to be usable in everyday situations. In this connection the long-term objective would be the ability to have instantly available functional translations of appropriate fillers, collocations and longer chunks which could be fitted neatly into conversational slots (see also BUTZKAMM, 1980). This objective, of course, only covers one aspect of conversation.

An English course based on the foundation dialogues would have to contain guidance for using the material as well, and intensive directed practice designed to ensure that it became part of the productive repertoire of pupils. Although this guidance would essentially be part of the course, not the pre-syllabus, a few general remarks would not be out of place.

For example, it would be necessary to point out to students, using the first language, that conversation functions according to fairly strict rules, which we keep to almost instinctively in our own language, but need to become aware of in order to perform effectively and avoid offence in a second language. The differences between German and British or American culture are comparatively small, but it is generally agreed, and has recently been demonstrated by experiment (HOUSE, 1979), that German is used more directly than English. Since students are likely to fall back on a so-called "simple" structure when they are in difficulties, there is a double danger that they will on occasions say something inappropriate, as did the German teacher who was honest enough to admit to the author that he had said "Give me a beer" in

an English pub, and been told by the barmaid, "If you want a beer in this pub, there's a very important little word you have to say." A selection of polite memorised chunks could have saved the teacher from filling this particular slot so disastrously.

It would be worth pointing out to students that in first contacts with the natives politeness matters more than strict honesty, and that an apparent appeal for an opinion is often nothing more than a request for approval. One of the native speaker commentators on the foundation dialogues said she thought that the use of nice was "a bit suspect" (see the reference pages for dialogue 2). For non-native speakers it is often far and away the safest adjective - unless, of course, "gush" is required.

The foundation dialogues are intended to provide only the language material necessary for simple conversation. This section will have made it clear that this is a very difficult task. An acceptable model would have to:

- reduce the complex set of principles according to which conversation functions to manageable proportions, in much the same way that rules of grammar have always been reduced and simplified for learners (see 4.5.3)
- reduce the number of lexical items and structures to a point where they could reasonably be mastered by ordinary pupils in the time available
- include the "fillers" without which conversation cannot function, but which have not usually received much attention in language courses in the past (see 4.5.4 above and Chapter 7)
- take the problems of learners into account by avoiding difficulties as far as is possible without the target language becoming unacceptable to native speakers (see 3.3).

4.6 Language acquisition

4.6.1 First and second language acquisition

The study of learner languages and pidgins (see 3.2) deals mainly with the characteristics of these approximative systems at a particular stage of development. Although it is fully recognized by workers in this field that some approximative systems become fossilized early while others go on developing until they are very close to or even identical with the target language, the actual process of acquisition is not of primary importance in learner language research.

The study of language acquisition deals with the processes and strategies which are involved when languages are learnt.

The first language acquisition of small children is relatively well-documented (cf. LENNEBERG, 1970). Lenneberg sees normal first language acquisition as a maturational process linked to the child's general development (LENNEBERG, 1970:220). Speech emerges gradually and systematically. Normal children reach certain "speech milestones" at more or less the same time (LENNEBERG, 1970:222). The mechanical ability to produce words is available before the cognitive ability to use language (LENNEBERG, 1970:223). Speech development is essentially independent of other maturation processes (LENNEBERG, 1970:224). All normal human beings acquire a high degree of proficiency in the language of their speech community early in life, provided that they are exposed to the language in question. All languages seem to present roughly the same degree of difficulty to the children learning them (LENNEBERG, 1970: 225).

Children appear to be enormously flexible at an early age. Even if they are brought up in an impoverished linguistic environment of the kind that exists in some institutions, they can quickly catch up with their contemporaries if they are moved to a more normal environment at any time up to a few years before puberty.

Until puberty the brain itself remains flexible enough to re-locate speech activity if it is damaged. Thereafter the process of lateralization is complete (LENNEBERG, 1960: 235). Speech is then permanently located in the left

hemisphere. Damage to this hemisphere after puberty will normally result in loss of speech. Scovel suggests that the persistence of a foreign accent which is characteristic of most adult learners of a second language can also be accounted for by lateralization: "The simultaneous occurrence of brain lateralization and the advent of foreign accents is too great a coincidence to be left neglected" (SCOVEL, 1969:252). Scovel believes that most of the energy expended on trying to improve the pronunciation of adults is wasted.

If we leave the question of foreign accents out of account, the two extreme views of second language would be a) that it is exactly the same process as learning a first language, or b) that it is entirely different. Macnamara has argued the first case enthusiastically, but not entirely convincingly: "Let us compare a man of forty with an infant. We could not prove that the man was less skilled in language learning unless we gave the man an opportunity equal to that of the child to learn a language. We would need to remove the man from the preoccupation of his work and supply him with a woman who devoted a large part of her time and energy to helping him learn the language. Further, the woman would have to behave just like the mother of a small baby, which among other things would include treating anything the man said in his mother tongue as she would treat a child's babbling." (MACNAMARA 1973b:63)

The main weakness in Macnamara's case is that he has left the presence of the first language out of account. As Andersson has pointed out, the adult's brain is "full of the patterns of his native language" (ANDERSSON, 1973:255). The slow progress in most FLT classes, particularly those held in the first language community, tends to confirm the view that the learning of a second language is essentially a different process from learning the first language for adults and adolescents.

However, the case that young children are <u>generally</u> better at learning a second language is not proven. Taylor suggests that the processes are basically similar, and that "the apparent differences between them can be accounted for by considering the variables of previous linguistic experience,

cognitive maturity, and affective orientation." (TAYLOR, 1974:23) The adult's greater cognitive maturity may even give him an advantage in some circumstances (TAYLOR, 1974: 24).

During the last decade a third kind of language learning has also come under consideration: natural second language acquisition. The questions which researchers have tried to answer in connection with this kind of learning are:

1. Are L_1 and L_2(= natural L_2 acquisition) learning processes the same?
2. What kind of L_1 interference is there in the L_2 learning process?

(cf. FELIX, 1977c:27)

Early research pointed to very close parallels between L_1 and L_2 acquisition (WODE, 1974). Dulay and Burt's research suggested that even children with very different L_1 backgrounds (e.g. Chinese and Spanish) acquire the structures of English in almost exactly the same order (DULAY and BURT, 1974a). These authors went on to suggest that the order of acquisition depends not on the complexity of the structure as determined by external linguistic criteria, but on "the cognitive mechanisms a child innately possesses" (DULAY and BURT, 1974b:265). This concept is close to what Corder called a "built-in syllabus" (CORDER, 1967:166) or a "language acquisition device" (CORDER, 1973:134). Wode also accepts the existence of a mechanism of this kind (WODE, 1977:18).

Wode's research project in Kiel is an attempt to give more precise answers to the two central questions about natural L_2 acquisition outlined above, and also to compare these findings with language learning in the FLT classroom (details of the project are given in WODE, 1979).

Wode's answer to the two questions is a composite one. Children learning an L_2 naturally refer to their L_1 only when there is a certain degree of similarity between the structures of the two languages (WODE, 1977:20).

Felix claims that even this relatively limited amount of apparent interference is not always what it seems. He gives several examples to support the hypothesis that what looks like interference in natural L_2 acquisition should

often in fact be explained in terms of some general transitional stage in the learning of languages (FELIX, 1977d). For example, subjectless copular sentences produced by a Spanish boy learning English could be explained by reference to this phenomenon in L_1 acquisition of a number of languages. The fact that subjects are often deleted in this kind of sentence in Spanish may not be relevant (FELIX, 1977d:247).

The scenario for child first or second language acquisition out of school can be tentatively described in relatively simple terms. The child has a language acquisition device which incorporates a built-in syllabus. Approximative language systems of all kinds have enough common elements for us to be able to say that more or less universal learning and communicative strategies are being employed. When a second language is acquired naturally, interference from the first language plays a surprisingly minor role.

The differences between child and adult learners are probably not as fundamental as they were at one time believed to be. If adults do have more difficulty in learning a second language in the second language community, this will probably be the result of affective factors such as fears about loss of status or loss of identity (SCHUMANN, 1975, 1978). They are at a definite disadvantage only as far as accent is concerned.

Pidgins are cases of "arrested development" as a result of social rather than linguistic or maturational factors. People learn only as much of a language as they need.

The logical conclusion of this line of argument is that if children and adolescents learning English in school in non-English-speaking countries fail to acquire a reasonable mastery of their second language, the faults must lie with institutionalised language teaching rather than with the students. This conclusion is undoubtedly an oversimplification.

4.6.2 Foreign language teaching in school

It has been claimed that if students are learning their second language outside school, language courses in school may to some extent be irrelevant (KRASHEN, 1976:158-9). Even if we regard this claim as overstated, the fact that it has been made at all still highlights the essentially different situation of FLT in countries where the target language is not spoken outside the school. The entire onus of teaching the second language then falls squarely on the teacher.

Children acquiring a first or second language naturally will normally teach themselves by trying out rules to see if they "work", and modifying these rules in a systematic way until they correspond to those of the target language, or, in the case of pidginization, until they function adequately for basic and limited communication situations.

Felix suggests that the natural strategies and built-in progression which can be observed in natural first and second language acquisition are ignored in school, and that we cannot expect to see real improvements in school FLT until they are taken into account: "Mir scheint jedoch eine grundlegende Verbesserung von Lehrverfahren so lange nicht möglich zu sein, wie die spracherwerblichen Eigenleistungen des Schülers und die entwicklungsspezifischen Gesetzmäßigkeiten nicht in Rechnung gestellt werden." (FELIX, 1977b:59). This statement is suspiciously close to the "tabula rasa" approach to language teaching criticized by Mindt in another connection (MINDT, 1977).

There are so many differences between natural L_2 acquisition and FLT in school, that any attempt to apply findings from one field to the other should be treated with the utmost caution. In school, the role played by natural sequences and strategies in the success or failure of pupils to learn a second language will probably prove to be insignificant compared with other factors which are already known to be important:

- the lack of any need to speak the L_2 outside school, and the lack of any real reward for speaking it in school ("The child learns talk because society makes that relatively effortless response supremely worthwhile."(Miller and Dollard quoted in LANE, 1962:7)
- the availability of a linguistic code which is already adequate for all communicative purposes outside school
- the pervasive influence of this code on the second language
- the prevalence of "school English" in German schools
- the very limited opportunities for listening to and speaking the language which can be provided in school

Nevertheless, a number of points arising from work on approximative language systems and language acquisition are worth considering in terms of their potential usefulness in FLT.

4.6.2.1 Classroom input

The most obvious difference between classroom L_2 input and the input when the L_2 is being learnt naturally is the huge difference in sheer quantity. Very few pupils learning English in school can reckon to have more than five or six language lessons a week. Learners who are being integrated into an L_2 environment are usually surrounded by the target language for much of the day, and hear it used in a wide variety of situations.

We know that language domain separation (the limitation of second language use to certain specific roles) is likely to cause pidginization (RICHARDS, 1972:171). Unless the teacher succeeds in creating a world of the imagination for his pupils which breaks the bounds of the classroom, they will experience the second language only in this one, very limited domain. There is no reason to think that the consequences will be very different from those in other cases of language domain separation.

The quality of the input in the English lesson also leaves a great deal to be desired as a rule.

- The teacher's own ability to communicate in the L_2 may be limited. If he does not use taped materials recorded by native speakers, his English will be the only model for his pupils. He is in any case the only spontaneous source of English available in the classroom.
- One third to one half of the input for each individual learner may be provided by other pupils speaking just as imperfectly as he does himself (RAASCH, 1979:29).

In the circumstances it would be surprising if pupils left school speaking good English (see also SOLMECKE, 1979).

4.6.2.2 Classroom language use

The quantity of spoken language use for the individual learner in the FLT classroom is likely to be a few dozen words at the most unless he is a "star", or unless the teacher is exceptional. A child speaking his own language, on the other hand, may use as many as 20-30,000 words a day in some cases. Even if these figures are exceptional, the amount of "practice" in the first language is likely to outweigh that in the second quite dramatically (WAGNER, 1981).

Perhaps even more important are the different ways in which language is used in the two environments. As Campbell and Wales have pointed out, in a real language environment, the speaker receives constant feedback: "If (the child's) questions, wishes, demands, and so forth are comprehensible and appropriate to the occasion, they will be followed by the desired consequences." (CAMPBELL and WALES, 1970, 255). Feedback in the classroom will usually consist of praise from the teacher if the utterance is correct (WULF, 1978), but this purely verbal feedback does not prepare pupils for the outside world, where language is used to make things happen, either within the bounds of a conversation or beyond them (see also VALETTE, 1969).

Researchers concerned with language acquisition have also pointed out other differences in language use when they compare language use in the outside world with language use in the FLT classroom.

Felix suggests that the kind of competence required in school is mainly reproductive competence, whereas language use outside school requires creative competence (FELIX, 1977a). Wode also points out that a good deal of the language produced by pupils consists of memorised sequences. This makes it difficult to judge their ability to react appropriately in real situations (WODE, 1979).

Pupils who have progressed above the most basic level are very often actually required to produce utterances which are both more complex than they would naturally produce in the target language, and more complex than they or their contemporaries in other countries would normally produce when speaking their own languages (WIDGORSKY, 1971).

Although pupils in school appear to be capable of producing more complex structures than learners who are at approximately the same stage in acquiring a second language naturally, certain features of natural language acquisition sequences nevertheless tend to occur, even when teaching is specifically geared to eradicating them, e.g. free forms are likely to occur when bound forms are being taught (WODE, 1979:225).

A further difference is that, since form often matters more than meaning in school, trivial remarks are made simply for the purpose of saying something and pleasing the teacher (HÜLLEN, 1979:199). In the author's experience there is a related tendency for students to verbalise elements in a given situation which are so obvious as not to need mentioning, e.g in the situation At the filling station: "Do you sell petrol?"

It has also been pointed out that coherence matters less inside the classroom than outside (HÜLLEN, 1979a:199). There are breaks and repetitions in native speaker utterances too, but the native speaker takes care to maintain coherence. In fact, interruptions in the flow of speech can often be interpreted as strategies to ensure that the listener is not left behind (RAASCH, 1979:31). The learner in school is usually much too concerned with his own performance to worry about the listener.

4.6.2.3 Modelling the target language

At present we do not know what effect it would have on language teaching in schools if we were to attempt to modify learning sequences so that they more closely resembled natural learning sequences. Felix, for example, outlines the phases which German children acquiring English naturally in an English-speaking country go through on their way to mastering negation, and concludes:"Aus dem hier aufgeführten Datenmaterial läßt sich deutlich erkennen, daß sich der natürliche Zweitsprachenerwerb - ebenso wie der Erstsprachenerwerb - in einer geordneten Abfolge von Entwicklungsstadien vollzieht. Die Kinder erwerben die Strukturen der Zielsprache nicht auf einmal: vielmehr werden aus den strukturellen Eigenschaften der Erwachsenensprache einzelne Merkmale gleichsam herausgefiltert und in einem streng geordneten Entwicklungsprozeß zur Zielstruktur hin wieder zusammengesetzt." (FELIX, 1977b:47) There is no attempt to follow the same process in school, in particular because errors are generally treated as marks of incompetence. Felix suggests that some errors should be treated simply as self-correcting developmental phenomena, although it is doubtful for reasons already discussed whether the self-correcting mechanisms would function as well in class as they do in the target language community(FELIX, 1977b,57-8).

The one area where there is general agreement on ways of modelling the target language to suit learners is simplification. The arguments in favour of simplifying the spoken English which is taught in German schools can be summarised as follows:

- The range of structures used frequently in everyday conversation is relatively small (WIDDOWSON, 1971). Some aspects of native speaker conversation are of course very complex (see the example in 1.2 above), but acceptable spoken English for second language learners can be far simpler than this, as native reactions to the foundation dialogues show.

- There is good evidence to suggest that young children learning their first language naturally are not exposed to a random corpus as had one time been supposed, but that on the contrary, "the spoken language addressed to young children by adults can be characterized as consistently adjusted in the direction of greater simplicity." (GAIES, 1976:30)

- Approximative languages of all kinds, including stages in natural first and second language acquisition, show evidence of strategies to simplify structures, break down complex items etc. If that part of a language which is to be learnt in school resembled other approximative languages in this respect, it would probably present less difficulties for the learner than is the case at present.
- Since pidgins appear to be easier to learn than full languages, and since pidgins exhibit various kinds of simplification, presumably simplified versions of full languages which remained within the standard would also be easier to learn than full languages.
- The learners themselves consistently simplify the input from teacher and textbook very considerably (HEUER, 1978a, 1980).

This discrepancy between input and intake means that the learner target language should be more comprehensive than the actual projected performance of learners, to allow for "wastage". This phenomenon is discussed from a different point of view in the section on norms (see 3.1). There is no way in which it could be tackled systematically at present.

So far the kinds of simplification referred to have been general, but an author who works on textbooks in Germany will inevitably be influenced by the specific problems of German learners in his choice of language. The versions of a simple textbook text which an English author would produce if he sat down to simplify it with a group of French co-authors, and then with a group of German co-authors, would almost certainly differ in some respects, but both versions would remain within the range of language which native speakers would consider acceptable.

The dangers of mutual incomprehension between groups of French and German learners whose classroom target languages had been slightly modified in this way would probably be small. If there were comprehension problems, non-standard features of the learner languages, not the classroom target languages, would be responsible. The dangers of straying too far towards a non-native norm have been discussed in 3.1.

General and specific attempts to reduce the learning problems of German students of English have been made along the following lines in the foundation dialogues:

general (very similar for any group of learners)

- As few tense forms and other structures have been used as was consistent with acceptability.
- One generally acceptable form is included where there is a choice of similar items, e.g. have to instead of, not as well as must (I (really) must is included as a collocation, not as a full structure).
- Areas which are generally agreed to cause problems for learners, but which are not strictly necessary for conversation at a basic level have been excluded, e.g. the passive (except in collocations such as was/were born, it's been cancelled/damaged), indirect speech (again except for a very small number of collocations)

specific (mainly for German learners)

- A number of items were changed or omitted as a result of comments by FLT experts with experience in Germany, and German teachers of English (see the reference pages for the dialogues).
- Where native speaker judges preferred a more complex form which has a parallel complex form in German, the complex form was included, e.g. I'd rather (Ich würde lieber) instead of I prefer.
- Idiomatic uses of common words which have no direct equivalent in German are entered in the vocabulary list as separate items. The false assumption that pupils will somehow "pick up" these uses has not been made, e.g. I see, It won't go.

  (The well-documented presence of large numbers of English words in Germany (see, for example, CARSTENSEN et al., 1972 (English in newspapers), ZINDLER, 1975 (general) and FINK, 1978 (English in a mail order catalogue) was regarded as a sometimes rather questionable bonus, not as a principle for vocabulary selection.)

The registers for the dialogues represent a shift from structural to lexical categories, and from single lexical items to collocations. This is not exactly a simplification, but it could make learning easier for students who are not good at abstract reasoning. The relatively large role played by "chunks" of language in the dialogues (see 5.2.2) makes them rather like what Nemser called utility languages or "little languages" in some ways (see 3.2 above), but their potential for learners who use the material intelligently goes well beyond the situations actually covered.

4.6.3 The problem of "difficulty"

An alternative approach to improving learnability would be to attempt to find out which structures and lexical items in the second language actually do cause the greatest difficulty for a particular group of learners, with a view to excluding those which are inessential from the learner target language.

Contrastive analysis proceeds from the assumption that difficulty depends on differences between the first and second language: "CA is based on two main assumptions: that the native language (NL) interferes with the learning of a SL; and that the greater the difference between a structure in NL and one in TL, the more difficult it is for the learner." (TRAN-THI-CHAU, 1975:123)
It is generally agreed that interference from the first language can account for many of the errors made by second language learners, and is probably the largest single source of errors. However, many errors cannot be dealt with adequately by either the "strong" (predictive) or "weak" (explanatory) contrastive analysis hypothesis. On the whole error analysis, which provides information about the learner's interlanguage on an empirical basis (CORDER, 1975:204), was felt to be a more promising line of research (KIELHÖFER, 1976:83).

Spolsky tried to find signs of real progress among the "fads" which have concerned FLT experts in the past three decades. He came to the conclusion that the main contribution of contrastive analysis has been in the field of pedagogical grammars, where practical considerations are more important than theoretical strength (SPOLSKY, 1979:252-3).

The lists of structures in German "Richtlinien" and textbooks for the teaching of English are closely linked with school or reference grammars rather than with pedagogic grammars (see 5.2.2.3). Although these school grammars (e.g. MACKIN and EASTWOOD, 1980) are broadly based on contrastive principles, we cannot assume that difficulty has been taken into account in a systematic way, for the simple reason that no consensus on the

nature of difficulty exists at present. Over the past few years, a number of attempts have been made to establish the factors on which difficulty depends.

Mangold defends Esperanto against the main European languages along the following lines: "Zusammenfassend läßt sich sagen, daß die absolute Schwierigkeit beim Esperanto weitaus geringer ist als bei den EG-Sprachen, und zwar deshalb, weil es grundsätzlich regelmäßig ist, weil es im Umfang etwas geringer ist und weil die Sprachuniversalien besser berücksichtigt worden sind." (MANGOLD, 1976:329)
According to Mangold, therefore, a language which had few exceptions to its rules, and which contained fewer idiosyncratic features than other languages (Mangold uses English ȝ and θ as examples), would be easier to learn than its competitors. The question of lexical range is of secondary importance here, because vocabulary selection will always be necessary in the early stages of language learning. It is probable that only an artificial language could demonstrate decisive advantages in terms of regularity and universality, desirable though these features may be.

We are very far from the point where an international version of English which differed decisively from native norms (see 3.1) in these respects would be acceptable. However, there is already some evidence to suggest that lingua franca users of English understand one another better than they understand American or British specialists in the same field (CLOSE, 1981). Pronunciation and the use of idiomatic expressions and allusions are likely to have been at the root of the problems experienced by non-natives. The onus is clearly on native speakers to exercise a degree of control.

It has long been recognized that the amount of difference between features of two languages, however measured, is not a good indicator of the degree of difficulty which speakers of one language will experience when they try to learn the other. In his analysis of complexity within the target language, Arndt comes to the conclusion that psychological complexity, defined in terms of abstraction,

is more important than linguistic complexity (degree of deviation from a base form) as far as lexical items are concerned (ARNDT, 1973:21). Arndt's research into structures indicates that the simple, active, affirmative, declarative sentence is psychologically, but not necessarily linguistically the simplest from a learner's point of view (ARNDT, 1973:23).

For less able pupils in particular, there is an ever-present risk of confusion between structures in the second language which are perceived as similar by the learner. For this reason Heuer suggests that the more useful and/or common of two such forms should be stressed in productive work (HEUER, 1976a:83). These apparent similarities are another aspect of complexity in the target language, but the first language is also involved. If the structures of the first language were similarly complex in the areas in question, there would almost certainly be less problems (e.g. if there were two present tenses in German).

Kielhöfer's research based on the reproduction ("Nacherzählung") of two versions of a French text, leads him to the conclusion that the degree of difficulty for the learner depends upon three factors related to the rules of the second language, rather than surface structures:

1. Simplicity
2. Complexity
3. Logic

} of the rules

(KIELHÖFER, 1976:106, my translation)

According to Kielhöfer, a simple rule is one which applies generally, without semantic restrictions. The existence or non-existence of a similar rule in the first language is irrelevant. A good example would be the SVO rule in English for German learners.

A complex rule is not the opposite of a simple rule, but one which depends upon other rules, within a hierarchy of rules. The correct production of il n'y en a pas une in French, for example, depends upon applying a complex system of interdependent rules in the right order (KIELHÖFER, 1976:108). Again the problems depend mainly on complexity within the second language, not on contrastivity, although a clear dividing line cannot be drawn at present. Partial

similarity between L1 and L2 rules appears to increase the degree of difficulty.

A logical rule is one which it is easy to see the reason for, or one which "makes sense" to the learner in terms of his first language (KIELHÖFER, 1976:109). If, from the L1 point of view, there does not appear to be a good reason for an L2 rule, or if semantic categories for dealing with the rule do not exist in the L1, it will cause difficulties for the learners. The problems which German learners have in distinguishing between simple past and present perfect would come into this category.

Higa's treatment of difficulty in connection with vocabulary suggests that what makes sense to the learner may be a very important factor in this area, too: "However, in language learning the complexity of a word seems to be more psychological than logical. A word may be logically complex because of its structure and meaning, but psychologically it may be simple." (HIGA, 1965:169) For the German learner apple is not a difficult word to learn, because a) this word can immediately be "coded" in his first language, with all its attributes, and b) its translated meaning is "meaningful and familiar" to the learner (HIGA, 1965:169-172). The fact that an apple is a complex object from many points of view does not worry the learner in the least. The problems which many German learners have with using to enjoy freely may therefore depend not so much on the intrinsic complexity of the concept, but on the fact the two conditions listed above are not fulfilled.

Eckman has made an interesting attempt to develop a universally applicable notion of "relative degree of difficulty", which would enable contrastive analysis to predict difficulty more effectively (ECKMAN, 1977). As this marked differential hypothesis has not been generally accepted, it can be dealt with briefly. Eckman claims that the various grammatical features of different languages can be described as either more or less marked in relation to the "markedness relations stated in universal grammar" (ECKMAN, 1977:321). Features of an L2 which are more marked (i.e. less universal) than corresponding features of the L1 would be difficult to learn,

the degree of difficulty depending on the degree of markedness. Features of the L2 which were less marked would not present a serious learning problem.

Kellerman points out that the information on structures in Persian and Arabic which Eckman used was probably not reliable (KELLERMAN, 1979:32-33). In addition, the fact that language learners will avoid structures which they find difficult is not taken into account in the markedness differential hypothesis (KELLERMAN, 1979:31). In an earlier article Schachter had pointed out that Chinese and Japanese learners make relatively few mistakes in using relative clauses, but that compared with other learners they also use very few relative clauses, and in fact find them extremely difficult. They only use relative clauses when they are reasonably sure of themselves. Persian and Arab learners, on the other hand, assume that relative clauses are used as in their own languages, and make large numbers of mistakes with great confidence: "If the constructions are similar in the learner's mind, he will transfer his native language strategy to the target language. If they are radically different, he will either reject the new construction or use it only with extreme caution." (SCHACHTER, 1974:212).

Kellerman nevertheless believes that the concept of markedness is important, and suggests that "the learner as native speaker has available notions of markedness in his own language, which can serve to filter out untransferable items. Such notions presumably lie dormant till called upon when there is a need to speak the foreign language or undertake some other linguistic experiment." (KELLERMAN, 1979:38) He defines markedness as follows: "a structure or meaning will be marked in the NL if there are related syntactic structures which express the same message in psychologically simpler ways, or meanings of the same word or lexical unit which the native speaker considers more central."(KELLERMAN, 1979:38)

Kellerman produces some interesting structural and lexical examples to show how learners take markedness into account in their second language, e.g. "38 students had, in the course of (a) translation, to translate dit boek leest

voortreffelijk (this book reads extremely well). Yet this translation, with an intransitive 'read', occurs on only 13 occasions. Many of these students are recognised as being among the weaker members of their year. In this case, one suspects that their linguistic insensitivity has led to success!" (KELLERMAN, 1979:40)

The construction in question is presumably felt to be specifically Dutch (i.e. marked), and good students in particular are unwilling to risk transferring it to English for this reason. Anyone working with two languages will have noticed how surprised speakers of one language are when an almost identical idiomatic expression is found to exist in the other, e.g. German: Wie geht es?
English: How goes it?
This kind of phenomenon can also be explained in terms of the learner's concept of markedness. Kellerman concludes by suggesting that an investigation of native speaker intuitions about their first and second languages might help to explain their learning difficulties (KELLERMAN, 1979:43).

This approach had in fact already been suggested by Tran-Thi-Chau, who asked (school) students of Spanish in the Toronto area to rate structures on a five-point scale of difficulty, and give reasons for the difficulty. In a number of cases these comments demonstrated considerable insight into learning problems, and they also revealed factors not covered in either error analysis or contrastive analysis, e.g. the amount of attention paid to a particular item in class, or the effect of early or recent learning, or of constant practice (TRAN-THI-CHAU, 1975:136).

Literature on difficulty normally deals with a relatively small range of examples, whereas the problem with the foundation dialogues was to attempt to avoid difficulty across the board, but within the range of language which native speakers would consider acceptable. Learner difficulties were taken into account intuitively in the first version of the dialogues, and again when textbook authors were asked to comment on them.

In an attempt to take the problems of German learners into account, four German English teachers were asked to read through the conversation dialogues and point out anything which they felt to be both very difficult, and unnecessary. These items were replaced by an alternative available elsewhere in the dialogues which was not seen as difficult, unless the item in question was felt to be particularly useful. The risk that native speakers might find these changes unacceptable is negligible. The dialogues were therefore not re-submitted to a panel of native speakers when these final changes had been made. Details are given on the reference pages.

5. Form and content

5.1 Form

As the foundation dialogues are intended to be a model for spoken language, they are in dialogue form. This very general term ("conversation between two or more people" according to the Collins English Dictionary) needs to be defined more closely, particularly with reference to its use in foreign language teaching (see below).

Each of the foundation dialogues is intended to correspond with one or two conversational transactions (see 4.5.1). All such transactions are complex "speech events" (Hymes, quoted in WAGNER, 1973:90-91), which can be considered from a number of different points of view. It is obvious that a brief conventional title cannot adequately take more than one of these points of view into account. At one level, for example, a conversation consists of a series of speech acts, but it would involve a distortion of the intention and a limitation on the range of the material to name the dialogues according to a catalogue of speech functions.

Except in purely phatic conversations, the most important feature is the topic, and what the participants want to achieve in connection with it (see 4.5.2). As a rule, therefore, a topical/situational title was felt to be more adequate than a functional title, with some exceptions. In dialogue 29, for example, the function ("Apologizing") is clearly more important than the reason for the apology (a damaged record etc.).

It would also have been possible simply to number the dialogues. This option was rejected as being unhelpful for the potential user. Attempts to sub-group or order the dialogues according to some overriding set of criteria were abandoned because a) the ordering of material has been assigned to the syllabus level in this model and b)other criteria would inevitably have been left out of account.

The exact number of dialogues is not critical. Having decided that conversation in everyday situations means, at a basic level, English for first or early encounters

with native speakers (or with other non-natives in a lingua franca situation), it is not very difficult to predict the main situations in which these encounters are likely to occur with a fair degree of accuracy. It is not surprising that there is a large measure of agreement among the lists available (see 1.4).

There is, of course, an almost infinite range of variations on any set of basic situations in real life, but it would be possible for a student to cope with many situations not directly covered simply by learning to use the foundation materials flexibly. The foundation dialogues can thus be tested for completeness quite easily. It is only necessary to attempt to write similar dialogues for related situations using the speech material already available (dialogue 34 was written in this way). Whether or not an individual student will be able to use the materials in this way depends on factors not considered in this study. Training for flexibility in the use of the speech material provided could very well be the main productive objective in the second phase of an English course based on the foundation dialogues.

It is necessary at this point to discuss the implications of choosing the dialogue form, particularly in connection with the key terms context and situation.

5.1.1 Dialogue

Any example of speech which contains short, alternating utterances by two or more speakers could be described as a dialogue. A naturally-occurring dialogue between two native speakers would of course be authentic (= genuine). However, the term dialogue alone does not necessarily imply authentic language used in a real situation. Bludau has suggested that it is useful to make a distinction between natural dialogues and didactic dialogues (BLUDAU, 1975:252). This parallels the distinction made earlier between authentic and acceptable language (see 3.3). The same kinds of limitation apply:

> "Die ... künstliche Ausgangssituation bei Unterrichtsdialogen rechtfertigt eine Verkürzung der in natürlichen Kommunikationsakten erfaßten Wirklichkeit auf den engen Rahmen des didaktisch-methodisch Möglichen und Notwendigen.
> Die didaktische Differenz zwischen natürlichem und didaktischem Dialog ist nicht als Freibrief für die Korrumpierung der Zielsprache zu verstehen."
>
> (BLUDAU, 1975:253, numbering omitted)

Dialogues are used for all kinds of different purposes in modern textbooks. Weijenberg mentions dialogues for introducing new lexical and structural material, dialogues for practising pronunciation, and dialogues for conveying cultural information (WEIJENBERG, 1980:125). A great deal of everyday language practice in the classroom (e.g. "drills", "pattern practice") is also in dialogue form, even if it bears no relation to conversation. There is no reason to reject this kind of material for not meeting inappropriate standards.

Lübke suggests that dialogues which are specifically intended to represent spoken interaction usually differ from authentic conversation in three ways:

1. They are based on the written code.
2. Paralinguistic elements are missing.
3. "Mots passe-partout"(words such as stuff and general-purpose verbs such as to do) are also missing.

(based on LÜBKE, 1975:295-7)

These two authors reach their negative conclusions about textbook dialogues by comparing them with (semi-)authentic conversation. It is also possible to ask native speakers to judge didactic dialogues. Preston, who confesses that he has in the past enjoyed pointing out the deficiencies of textbook dialogues, concludes that on the basis of judgments by "non-linguists and non-teachers" (PRESTON, 1975:5), the dialogues he used were "not all that bad for general ESL purposes" (PRESTON, 1975:18). Weisberg examined 550 texts from American ESL textbooks, and came to the conclusions that:

- the range of situations did not match up with actual student requirements as assessed by the author on a common-sense basis
- many dialogues were not authentic (= reliable), for example because of the element of repetition in drill-type dialogues
- the language in many dialogues was inappropriate, e.g. the degree of formality was wrong, or there was a mixture of formal and informal styles, or a single level ("mono-style") was used throughout.

(based on WEISBERG, 1977)

Weisberg believes that "native speaker intuitions are in fact very reliable" (WEISBERG, 1977:17). This paper of course reflects the different ESL situation in America, with English spoken outside the classroom, and native speakers as English teachers. The risk of teaching "school English" nevertheless appears to be considerable.

Lewis has suggested the following requirements for dialogues which are intended as a model for second language conversation:

" - The model which is presented should be the standard English of a well-educated native.
- It should be the register that this person would use in stranger/stranger situations (although I think it is useful and helpful for more advanced learners to have their attention drawn to formal or friendly variants, e.g. in notes after the model dialogue).

- The dialogues should be based on certain fundamental functions which the pupil is likely to need and see the necessity and usefulness of. Here, of course, we must distinguish between a situation and a function. For a long time situational dialogues have been produced (At the Garage, At the Hairdresser's). Now we are thinking in terms of functional dialogues (Buying Something, Accepting and Refusing Invitations, etc.).

- Where there is a choice of exponent for a particular function, the form should be selected which is the least dependent on intonation. By implication this will mean that the selected form will be more dependent on structure.

- In considering the overall naturalness or otherwise of a dialogue, consideration must be given as to whether the dialogue will sound natural in the mouth of a foreigner rather than natural in the mouth of a native speaker, bearing in mind the foreigner's probable relatively poor intonation. We do have rather different expectations of a foreigner's language and we must bear in mind that what sounds right in the mouth of a native can sound wrong in a foreigner's mouth and vice versa.

- Finally, the appropriacy or otherwise of language depends on the situation and on the speakers. Therefore, any model dialogue must have a situational set, that is to say the learners must know something of the speakers and their relationship."

(LEWIS, 1980a:10)

In practice the distinction which Lewis makes between situational and functional approaches is not likely to be very large (see also CANALE and SWAIN, 1980).

Generally speaking, the requirements for didactic dialogues intended as a model for spoken interaction are the same as those for acceptable models for the spoken learner target language in general. However, problems of context and situation are particularly relevant in connection with dialogues.

5.1.2 Context and situation

One of the most important requirements for a didactic dialogue is that it should not occur in a "vacuum". Real speech is always surrounded by a "situational envelope" (ENKVIST, 1980:75). Enkvist refers to this "envelope" as the context for an utterance, which means that he treats context and situation as one and the same thing. For Müller the two terms are also synonymous (MÜLLER, 1970:230). He goes on to point out that there is a tendency to reserve situation for non-linguistic parts of the envelope, and context for the linguistic parts, but that this distinction cannot be maintained consistently, and leaves no term to cover all the attendant circumstances of an utterance.

In Firth's famous formulation context of situation the two terms are linked, but not in a way which immediately makes the relationship between them clear. Chapter 10 of The Tongues of Men (FIRTH, 1964(1937)) seems to justify the gloss "context provided by situation".

In the scheme put forward by Halliday et al., context is the term used for "relation of form and situation", whereas the term situation is used for "non-linguistic phenomena" (HALLIDAY et al., 1964:18).

In an article on pragmalinguistics, Mackey refers to "the bond between language and the context of its use" (MACKEY, 1978:194). The highest level in Mackey's hierarchy is an all-embracing context of culture. At the next level come contexts of communication (answering the questions what, why, and how), contexts of person (answering the questions who, when, and where), and contexts of situation (in what specific circumstances was something said?). At the lowest level in the hierarchy come purely verbal contexts.

Writers in the Firthian tradition are careful to point out that form and meaning are interdependent: "There is no duality of form and meaning on a Firthian view, any more than triality between syntax, semantics, and pragmatics." (MITCHELL, 1978:233) The language which forms the "contents"

of Enkvist's envelope is therefore itself part of the envelope. The envelope is not stable or static, but changes constantly as a conversation proceeds: "Nicht die Sprache hängt von der Situation, sondern die Situation hängt unter anderem von der Sprache ab, Sprache schafft und verändert Situationen." (LAITENBERGER-WEGENER, 1976:452, see also MITCHELL, 1978:232)

Lewandowski gives four definitions of the term "Kontext", two of which are relevant here. The first of these is similar to verbal context in Mackey's scheme, and the second meaning (Lewandowski's fourth) is "die sachlichen Umstände und situativen Zusammenhänge einer Äußerung" (LEWANDOWSKI, 1973: "Kontext").

The distinction between this second definition and definitions of situation can only be seen in terms of the different traditions in which context and situation have been important. The Firthian tradition has always been concerned with the relationship between words and reality, that is with meaning, and it is in connection with this relationship that the term context has typically been used: "Texts are interpretable only if we can imagine a possible world in which they might be true" (ENKVIST, 1980:76).

5.1.3 Situation

Firth defines a situation as "a patterned process conceived as a complex activity with internal relations between the various factors" (FIRTH, 1964(1937):110). This definition, stressing as it does the three features pattern, complexity and interdependence of factors or elements, would be broad enough to find general acceptance. As it immediately follows a reference to context of situation, we can claim that a situation provides the context for speech, and is itself the context. As we have seen, the two terms are interchangeable.

However, this kind of approach does not do justice to the importance of the term situation in foreign language teaching. Two main strands, now interwoven, can be distinguished.

The earlier of these uses is in connection with the situational approach (PIEPHO, 1967). At its most primitive, a situational approach may involve no more than an attempt to give some kind of unity to a series of drill items or a traditional "grammar exercise". There is no shortage of successful attempts to demonstrate the inadequacy of this kind of "situation" (e.g. VON ZIEGESAR, 1976a, ARENDT, 1979). Müllers "K-Probe", which consists of trying to imagine real-life contexts (or situations) in which a particular utterance might occur, remains a very effective way of sorting out artificial or "dead" material (MÜLLER, 1970).

However, the distinction between authentic (= genuine) and didactic, which we have already observed in connection with dialogues, and with samples of language in general, complicates the issue severely. The use of the terms real or real-life situations is very questionable if applied to simulated situations in school, which can never be more than realistic.

The student is in the position of someone learning a swimming stroke on dry land. In a number of important ways, what he is learning is different from the real thing. The most one can hope for is that the simulation is so like the real activity that when the student encounters the real-life equivalent, he will be able to cope (LÜBKE, 1975:298, HACKER, 1977:32).

In real-life situations speech is an integral part of the context, with the result that there is no motivation problem. Refusal to speak can also be an effective form of communication. In school, on the other hand, motivation depends on convincing pupils that the situation could be real, which requires a considerable imaginative leap on their part, and a good deal of "schöpferische pädagogische Phantasie" (PIEPHO, 1967: 32) on the part of the teacher.

The most obvious sign that the imaginative leap has been taken, is that pupils begin to identify with their roles (TIGGEMANN, 1977(1968):37). Tiggemann lists the following criteria for didactic situations which could successfully motivate pupils and prepare them for real-life situations:

"1. Sie wirken ganz allgemein lernmotivierend.
2. Sie haben Handlungscharakter.
3. Sie enthalten Erfahrungsmomente, mit denen sich die Lerndenden identifizieren.
4. Sie nötigen zu reaktiver Stellungnahme.
5. Sie führen zur Vergegenwärtigung von Erfahrungen und Gegenständen.
6. Sie wirken als Sprechanlässe oder bringen durch ihre Handlungsstruktur Sprechanlässe hervor."

(TIGGEMANN, 1977(1968):34)

Tiggemann introduces the term "Realsituation" to describe situations which meet these criteria, and distinguishes between "primäre Realsituationen" in which pupils play themselves, and "sekundäre Realsituationen" in which they take on other roles, as they would for example if they were acting a scene from a story in the textbook (TIGGEMANN, 1977 (1968):35-36).

The use of "real" in Tiggemann's terminology is inevitably misleading. The only real situation in school is the actual classroom situation, which has been given special attention by some authors for this reason (e.g. LAITENBERGER-WEGENER, 1976:451, LORENZEN and TABORN, 1983:21-46). However, this real situation is limited by the four walls of the classroom, and it becomes unreal the moment German native speakers start communicating in English. As Arendt says: "Ohne daß

es bisher ausgesprochen werden mußte, war allen an der Diskussion um situational teaching Beteiligten klar, daß es darum geht, Schüler auf Situationen vorzubereiten, bei denen die Muttersprache nicht verwendet werden kann. Das ist der spezielle Auftrag des Fremdsprachenunterrichts." (ARENDT, 1979:85)

A natural corollary to this view would be to stress the importance of situations in which there are roles which could be played by non-native speakers. Without this important component, the real-life application of the situation, however realistic, and the chances of pupils identifying with their roles, are considerably reduced.

Situations in which English might be used in Germany, or in a "third" country as a lingua franca, tend to be neglected at present, although for many pupils these situations are more likely in real life than situations in Britain or America (see Appendix 1).

The need to make didactic situations as like real-life situations as possible is self-evident. There has therefore been a good deal of interest in the "constituent factors of speech events" (i.e. situations in which speech takes place: Hymes quoted in WAGNER, 1973:91). The main sources of these lists of factors are paralinguistic communication models (see for example WUNDERLICH, 1970). This is the second of the two "strands" referred to at the start of the section.

Wagner has collated some of the established models, and arrived at a list of six main elements:

"1. Sender (Sprecher)
2. Empfänger (Hörer)
3. Übertragungskanal (face-to-face/durch Medien)
4. Kode (Sprache und/oder paralinguistische Zeichen)
5. Nachricht (Information, Mitteilung) - "Sache" (Gegebenheit, auf die sich die Nachricht bezieht)
6. Situation"

(WAGNER, 1973:92-3, see also BUTTJES and SUCK, 1977)

Von Ziegesar has demonstrated that it is possible for a typical "textbook" dialogue to be deficient from the point of view of the speech situation on every single account according to a slightly modified version of Wunderlich's list, based on a later publication than the article referred to above. As von Ziegesar's list is intended to be directly applicable to second language learning, it is also reproduced here:

"1. Sprecher
2. Angesprochener
3. Zeit der Äußerung
4. Ort und Wahrnehmungsraum des Sprechers
5. mit der Äußerung etablierte Interrelation von Sprecher und Angesprochenem
6. phonologisch-syntaktische Eigenschaften der Äußerung
7. mit der Äußerung notwendig verbundene Voraussetzung des Sprechers (z.B. seine Annahmen über Wissen und Fähigkeiten des Angesprochenen, sein eigenes Wissen, sein Verständnis der vorausgegangenen Äusserungen)
8. mit der Äußerung verbundene Intention des Sprechers
9. kognitiver Inhalt der Äusserung"

(VON ZIEGESAR, 1976:241)

Wagner points out that some models contain very large numbers of elements, far more than could be practically applied to teaching materials (WAGNER, 1973:92). In a later article he distinguishes between two uses of the key term situation. Sprechsituation (O) refers to the complete situational envelope, and Sprechsituation (U) is limited to time and place (WAGNER, 1974:135).

Many everyday situations can be satisfactorily defined in terms of only three factors: place, role(s) and action (HACKER, 1977:35). The Council of Europe include four components in their specification of situations:

"1. the social roles which the learner will be able to play;
2. the psychological roles which the learner will be able to play;
3. the settings in which the learner will be able to use the foreign language;

4. the topics which the learner will be able to deal with in the foreign language."

(VAN EK, 1975:10)

Social roles are stranger/stranger and friend/friend. Psychological roles cover the social distance between speakers, and their attitudes to one another. Settings are the places where people may meet and talk to one another, and topics are what they would be likely to talk about (VAN EK, 1975:10-16). The specification includes long lists of settings and topics. A better specification of roles the second language learner should be able to play is given by Franke:

"Rolle 1: Auslandsreisender als Tourist
Rolle 2: Privater Besucher bei Ausländern
Rolle 3: Gastgeber für ausländische Privatbesucher"

(FRANKE, 1977:106. The other roles in Franke's catalogue are concerned with reading and writing the second language, and are not a primary concern here.)

It is a relatively small step from specifications of this kind to the integrated approach of the foundation dialogues, and to the inclusion of discourse functions. Speech functions had already been included in the Council of Europe specifications (VAN EK, 1975:19-21).

Speech situations are very complex. As Enkvist has pointed out, it is difficult to decide which of the many elements present is actually relevant in order to understand why it functions as it does: "For instance, when two people converse it will presumably make no difference to their language whether they wear red or blue ties or black or brown shoes, or whether their conversation takes place in rain or sunshine. But the language of husband and wife is likely to be different from that of, say, two company directors who meet for the first time" (ENKVIST, 1980:79).

One factor which is certainly relevant, but which is not covered in conventional catalogues, is the so-called "ich, hier, jetzt-origo" of the speaker (WUNDERLICH, 1970: 25). References to time and place, and the use of the

articles and demonstratives ("deixis"), all depend on the speaker's position in time and place at the moment of speaking (WUNDERLICH, 1970:30). For example, the statement "Ich habe offenbar Hunger" is very unlikely because the speaker knows definitely whether s/he personally is hungry as a rule, and "Ich bin jetzt dort in Stuttgart" clashes with the axiom that the speaker is "here" and not "there", although specialised contexts could be found for it (based on WUNDERLICH, 1970:25).

Ideally didactic dialogues for second language learning should meet two main requirements. They should contain no more speech material than is necessary for a non-native speaker to survive acceptably in a parallel real-life situation, and no less situational background than is necessary to provide a credible "envelope". In preparing the foundation dialogues it was assumed that the imagination of both author and potential users would be involved in order for the second requirement to be met, even at a pre-syllabus level.

A number of authors point out that the use of language in situations requires an integration of skills, e.g. "Ein weiterer Mangel des Ansatzes von den einfachen Fertigkeiten liegt darin, daß diese Fertigkeiten in Realsituationen in vielen Fällen miteinander verzahnt auftreten" (FRANKE, 1977:108). A situation, like an idiom (see 5.2.2), is more than the sum of its parts. Piepho quotes Pike to the effect that "language behavior and non-language behavior are fused in single events" (in PIEPHO, 1967:24, my emphasis).

It has been assumed here that a didactic situation can function as an integrated whole, and that the link with real life will be sufficiently convincing, if the following features of the situation are clear to the reader at the outset, or emerge naturally in the course of the dialogue, as they would in real life:

1. time (need not usually be at all precise)
2. place
3. speakers/relative roles
4. relevant prior knowledge and assumptions of speakers
5. topics
6. intentions of speakers in connection with the topics.

5.2 Content: the lists

In the past the making of lists of language elements has implied selection from a large corpus of material, or building up a list by introspection. In either case the exact number of items in each list has tended to assume a disproportionate amount of importance. In the thirties there were agonised debates about the inclusion or omission of a single word, and about the ideal number of items in lists compiled for different purposes. Although these debates took place mainly with reference to lexical items, the same applies to lists of structures or collocations.

The fact that the "classic" lists were intended to be general lists added further, and virtually insurmountable problems, because there is no satisfactory way of defining general content. The limitation of modern core materials to the predictable early productive requirements of second language learners makes the selection of suitable material easier. The first stage of "English for general purposes" is in fact English for the limited special purpose of first spoken contacts in the language.

For a modern set of specifications a word list alone can only be a starting point. Lists of single lexical items, collocations, structures, speech functions and discourse functions were prepared for the foundation dialogues. All except the speech and discourse functions are listed separately after the dialogues for the complete set. These two kinds of material are dealt with on the reference pages immediately following the individual dialogues. The collocations are listed both alphabetically and after the dialogues in which they occur.

5.2.1 Single lexical items

The list for the foundation dialogues (see 6.2 below) contains approximately 1500 items. Every item which occurs is included, except for words which occur only in the outlines of the situations, or in the stage directions. The frequency of words within the dialogues is irrelevant, since each dialogue is intended to contain what is necessary in order to master that particular situation at a basic level. A content word which occurs only once (e.g. screwdriver) is just as vital in the situation where it occurs (see dialogue 30) as a structural word which may occur in any number of different situations, provided one accepts that the situation in question is necessary.

No distinction has been made between receptive and productive material at this level. As has already been said, everything in the dialogues is intended to be learnt for productive use, including what is said by policemen, shop assistants etc., with only two exceptions (see dialogues 22 and 28). The reasons for this are a)that second language learners may very well need to play these roles (or ones very like them) when dealing with English-speaking foreigners in their own country, and b)that the language used for such roles is in any case very basic.

The Threshold Level introduces a number of signs and notices which are intended to be understood passively. There is no reason why similar material should not be added to the foundation material as part of the first or second learning phase (see 1.1), but this kind of material is not central to the concept. There would also be a good case for adding common brand names to the signs and notices, as these play a very important role in shopping, and in the urban landscape generally.

In the past a number of word lists were rendered virtually useless for teaching purposes by the fact that no indication of the meanings and uses which were to be included was given (e.g. HOWES, 1966). West solved the problem in the General Service List (WEST, 1953) by giving very detailed information about each entry. With the foundation dialogues

the meanings and uses of the items can be ascertained simply by referring to their occurrence(s) in the dialogues. Other meanings and uses are not intended to be taught as part of a basic course.

Once the final list of dialogues had been decided on, the problem of vocabulary selection was largely self-solving, apart from "slots" in the dialogues where any one of a number of common items could occur. As has already been stated, all the items commonly bought in, say, a chemist's shop, are highly "disponible". To include them all in the appropriate dialogue (23), and to adopt a similar policy for the other open-ended slots of this kind would make the final list far too long. An attempt has been made to include the most common items of all because ignorance of these could lead to native speaker sanctions. Rarer items can be quite successfully handled by means of "mots passe-partout" (LÜBKE, 1975:297) such as thing and stuff, provided of course that the student has these available.

Obviously the exact point where the line is drawn is a personal decision. A woman colleague, for example, felt that sanitary towels and/or tampons should be included in the list. In fact, the chances of anyone actually mentioning these items are relatively small. In a strange country, women will tend to buy them in a self-service shop if possible.

This is an extreme illustration of a problem which can never be satisfactorily solved. In the author's experience pupils are not in fact unwilling to learn fairly long lists of words which clearly belong within a particular word field. The play or puzzle element (e.g. Kim's game) is quite marked with this kind of material.

The temptation to add just one more useful item persisted right through work on the dialogues, but the conviction remains that there is a vaguely-defined point or zone where items begin to become non-essential for everyday use.

5.2.2 Collocations

Collocations are complex lexical items, which implies that their meaning is more important than their form. In mainstream linguistics, willingness to admit the importance of meaning is a relatively recent development (CARSTENSEN, 1969:8), but in the British school of linguistics, "the study of lexis tends to be an activity of equal status (in principle) to the study of grammar" (ALEXANDER, 1978: 175).

In their standard work The Linguistic Sciences and Language Teaching, Halliday et al. stress that no clear dividing line can be drawn between these two aspects of language: "In the first place the relation between the two levels is, as we have emphasised, a 'cline': formal patterns in all languages shade gradually from the grammatical to the lexical. In the second place language is a unified activity in which all patterning is subject to succession in time: there are thus analogies between the categories of lexis and those of grammar, analogies based on the two fundamental dimensions of any patterned activity, chain (one thing after another) and choice (one thing opposed to another). The chain relations are 'structure', in grammar, and 'collocation', in lexis." (HALLIDAY et al., 1964:35)

As it is used in this quotation, the term collocation refers to the "syntagmatic association of lexical items" (Halliday, quoted in CARSTENSEN, 1969:11). Heuer also uses the term in this way when he points out the difficulties which learners face when they try to decide, for example, which nouns can collocate with the adjective bad (HEUER, 1976a:96).

These uses of the term collocation are related to the fact that certain lexical items can be placed next to one another in a "chain". The rules of collocation are in what Palmer called "a vast uncharted territory lying between the respective domains of the dictionary-maker and the grammarian" (PALMER, 1967(1938):v). One important instrument which helps the traveller in "no man's land" to get his bearings is the semantic marker, but its usefulness is limited: "Außer[± countable] und [± human] hat die

moderne Grammatik noch weitere semantic markers gefunden, z.B.:[± concrete], aber es ist bald deutlich, daß wir mit solchen allgemeinen Angaben nur ganz grobe Unterscheidungen treffen können und dabei noch lange nicht die Feinheiten der englischen Grammatik und Semantik erfassen." (CARSTENSEN, 1969:12) Carstensen believes that dictionaries, and to a lesser extent grammars, should give learners more help with problems of collocation in the future (CARSTENSEN, 1969:16). Alexander gives a table showing the kinds of information available in this area in the late seventies (ALEXANDER, 1979:197).

The fact that collocation takes place is less important for the present purpose than actual expressions which exist as the result of collocation. These span the whole range from simple SVO constructions which can be satisfactorily explained in grammatical and "dictionary" terms, to highly idiomatic expressions, where this is not the case at all. Above this level are allusive expressions, quotations etc., which can only be interpreted adequately with the help of "encyclopaedic" knowledge about some aspect of the target culture (ALEXANDER, 1978:178-9). Acquiring this kind of knowledge is an important objective for advanced learners.

The term idiom was often used loosely in the past to cover mainly metaphorical fixed expressions like "to kick the bucket", "it's raining cats and dogs" etc. As it came to be realized that these expressions were less common in the speech of natives than in that of some enthusiastic learners, and that the inappropriate use of such expressions was likely to amuse the natives and embarrass the user, the old lists of this kind of idiom gradually disappeared from the classroom (GLAAP, 1979:488-9).

It is perhaps the bad reputation of this kind of idiom in FLT circles which has led to a relative lack of interest in idiomatic expressions in general. Götz sees these metaphorical expressions as only one of a number of types of "wiederholte Fügungen" (GÖTZ, 1976:55).

It is widely accepted that the essential feature of an idiomatic expression is that the meaning of the whole is different from the sum of the parts, and that therefore

the full meaning can never be explained only by reference to the dictionary meaning of the elements (ALEXANDER, 1978: 176, GLAAP, 1979:486, GOTTSCHALK, 1975:139). It is also widely accepted that "Ihre Teile sind nicht austauschbar, stehen in einer festen Anordnung, sind kontextautonom" (GLAAP, 1979:486. See also ROOS, 1979:122).

However, in some idiomatic expressions the idiomatic meaning can survive a certain amount of variation. In "to bury the hatchet" and "to bury the tomahawk" the idiomatic meaning remains the same, and is retained even in the passive, but there is no idiomatic meaning of "to bury the axe" (ROOS, 1979:126). The expression "to spill the beans", on the other hand, loses its idiomatic meaning if it is made passive, or as soon as the definite article is replaced with some, etc. (GOTTSCHALK, 1975:141-2. See also NATTINGER, 1980:339).

Collocations do not suddenly become idiomatic at a certain point on a scale: "The boundary between highly idiomatic items and the rest is not sharply drawn but hazy and imprecise. We shall do better to think in terms of a scale of idiomaticity, with the 'true' idioms (step up, take off) clearly established at the upper end and draw out appearing near the bottom, but with many items representing various degrees of semantic and grammatical unity spaced out in between." (COWIE and MACKIN, 1975:x)

We need not concern ourselves here with attempting to find the exact point on the sliding scale where a collocation begins to acquire idiomatic elements, but two points are worth making briefly in this connection:
1. Fixed expressions such as "Good morning", "Excuse me, please" etc. have an idiomatic element arising from their very limited variability and their meaning as used in discourse. The same applies to gambits and other kinds of fillers (ALEXANDER, 1979:181-184).
2. The whole range of clichés and catch-phrases such as "Do you come here often?" or "I washed me 'air last night" (response: "And (now) I can't do a thing with it") is also idiomatic, because such expressions cannot be understood

without a knowledge of the fact that they are clichés (ALEXANDER, 1979:184-5. See also NATTINGER, 1980:337-8).

It is reasonable to claim that for the second language learner, any "chunk" of language which is likely to occur in that particular form in conversation is idiomatic from his point of view, because he will have to learn it as a whole, and cannot expect to synthesise it. This is very much the view held by Palmer, who defined a phrase or collocation as "any word or form of wording that is likely to puzzle a foreign student." (PALMER, 1967(1938):xii) For the purposes of this study, a working definition of a collocation which is idiomatic from the second language learner's point of view would be: "any expression which the learner cannot be expected to produce using familiar structures and lexical items with the meanings he has learnt for them".

The question of using such expressions appropriately is covered in the section on discourse analysis (see 4.5). An extreme view of the nature of second language conversation seen in these terms is given by Nattinger: "Perhaps we should base our teaching on the assumption that, for a great deal of the time anyway, language production consists of piecing together the ready-made units appropriate for a particular situation and that comprehension relies on knowing which of these patterns to predict in these situations." (NATTINGER, 1980:341) Alexander quotes with approval Bolinger's view that "we are just beginning to realize how much of the competence we hear so much about is carried in our heads as prefabs*, with or without the interior vision of the assembled parts". (in ALEXANDER, 1978:178)

The view taken here is that Nattinger's remarks apply to a very considerable degree during the phatic phases of conversation. There are also many "slots" for fixed expressions in the topic-orientated phases of a conversation, but it would of course seriously impoverish the learner target language to see it almost entirely in terms of an exchange of ready-made units.

* prefabricated units

Nevertheless, the proportion of such units in, for example, a typical report or commentary on a football match is so high in both English and German, that it would be easy to write a bilingual parody using very little else: " ... Unfortunately Schuhmacher's "Glanzparade" in the dying minutes of the game deprived Schalke of a well-earned "Ehrentreffer"..." Personal experience has taught the author that the best way to write an acceptable business letter in German is to use only expressions familiar to him from other, authentic German business letters, piecing them together in exactly the way envisaged by Nattinger.

Conversation in the first or second language is unthinkable without a large number of collocations (12% of spoken language according to SCHONELL (1956:66) and one item in five according to SORHUS (1976-77:216-217)), but when the question of teaching them is raised on in-service courses, the author has frequently come across the attitude that this kind of thing is a) a luxury, b) rather trivial, and c) way above the heads of ordinary pupils in any case. It will probably be some time before it is generally accepted that "Eine Verfügung über solche Floskeln ist notwendiger Bestandteil der kommunikativen Fähigkeit" (GÖTZ, 1976:56). The fact that this kind of material is mandatory in certain situations is simply not recognized at present: "Da in einer Gruppe oder Gesellschaft weitgehend Einigkeit darüber besteht, welche Aufgaben durch standardisierte sprachliche Mittel zu lösen sind, werden in bestimmten Interaktionskonstellationen Routineformeln geradezu erwartet und gehören genauso zum Regelsystem wie syntaktische und semantische Strukturen." (GÜLICH and HENKE, 1979:517)

It is even more pointless to learn off lists of collocations than it is to learn standard one-word lexical items in this way, as fixed expressions, particularly in ritualised exchanges, tend to be meaningless out of context (e.g. the expression "see you" meaning goodbye).

Since these idiomatic collocations cannot by definition be synthesised by second language learners from their component parts, it is obvious that this kind of material

will have to be treated as contextualised vocabulary, i.e. each expression should be taught and learnt as a whole, and considered as a "slot-filler" which will be needed at certain points in certain kinds of conversation. If the essential unity of these expressions were better understood, perhaps there would be less tendency for teachers to think of them as "advanced" because they often contain grammatical structures which it is not yet "time for": "The semantic unity which is characteristic of idioms tends to make them behave as single grammatical words also." (COWIE and MACKIN, 1975:ix)

The function of the foundation dialogues in this area is to provide a contextualised list of the collocations which are vital in conversation at a basic level. These expressions are listed directly after the dialogues in which they occur, and also alphabetically.

5.2.3 Structures

There is no point in attempting to make an original contribution in the field of grammatical description in connection with the foundation dialogues. It is only necessary to choose an appropriate model for listing the structures. Three different kinds of grammar are recognized as relevant to foreign language teaching to a greater or less degree:

1. linguistic grammars, i.e. attempts to provide descriptions of the rules of a language which will be of use to linguistics experts.

2. pedagogic or didactic grammars, which present the results of some aspects of linguistic grammars in a usable form for language teachers, and which may or may not concentrate on particular problem areas.

3. school or reference grammars, which attempt to reduce the grammar of a language to more or less simple "rules" in order to help language learners.

The first type of grammar is outside the scope of this study. Various approaches to the problems of constructing a didactic grammar have been suggested (BAUSCH, 1979). Bausch makes it clear that none of these approaches is ideal, mainly because the needs of the language teacher, and, by implication, those of the learner, have not been adequately catered for. Whether a basically eclectic or a basically simplifying model, or a combination of these two approaches has been attempted, the "flow" has been mainly one way, from linguistic grammars to language teaching.

Only recently (JUNG, 1975, EDMONSON et al., 1977a) have serious attempts been made to take the needs and problems of learners into account, in Jung's case by introducing a didactic"filter" (cf. BAUSCH, 1979:13) and in the case of Edmonson et al. by concentrating on an area believed to cause problems in English teaching (in this case the verb system), and adding teaching notes (EDMONSON et al., 1977a:11). Bausch pleads for a true integration of the learner's needs into future models (BAUSCH, 1979:17).

For a long time school grammars did not come under critical scrutiny. They listed predominantly "rules" (RUSSON, 1948) or patterns (LADO and FRIES, 1957, HORNBY, 1975) or a mixture of the two (HOFFMANN, 1973, PRANINSKAS, 1975) according to the fashions of the day.

They were always more or less in touch with the learner's needs and problems, and it would not be claiming too much to say that their very closeness to the front ensured a certain degree of effectiveness, although grammars of this type produced without the assistance of native speakers have tended in the past to include some very questionable material.

Kleineidam has argued for the retention of basically this type of school grammar in an enlightened form (KLEINEIDAM, 1979). The sentence would be seen as the main focus of attention, with "parts of speech" on the one hand and text elements (WERLICH, 1976 and 1980) also taken into consideration. Traditional terminology would be used, but it would be essential to distinguish more clearly than in the past between syntactic and semantic criteria (KLEINEIDAM, 1979).

It is likely that in the future there will be increasingly insistent demands that school grammars should be "communicative", and more orientated towards spoken English in general (cf. MACKIN and EASTWOOD, 1980). Kleineidam comes down firmly in favour of a "Systematisierung morpho-syntaktischer Erscheinungen" (KLEINEIDAM, 1979:190-191) as the heart of a school grammar. However, there is no reason why the system and its use in speech acts, conversation and other text forms should not be treated side by side. It is merely a question of how broadly the term grammar is interpreted at this level. A notional approach on the other hand (WILKINS, 1973 and 1976), would be unlikely to provide a sufficiently clear guide to basic structures for language learners, as has already been suggested, and it does not give any special emphasis to "teaching points" in the grammar, which are usually quite well covered in school grammars and the grammar sections of textbooks.

The terminology of the structure list for the foundation dialogues is essentially that which is familiar to most teachers and pupils (see, for example, KLEINEIDAM, 1979, MACKIN and EASTWOOD, 1980). Some terms from A University Grammar of English (QUIRK and GREENBAUM, 1973) have also been adopted. The list is intended to be a minimal catalogue for spoken English. Inevitably some of the structures which were found to be essential are among those considered "advanced" by many teachers. Some other "favourite" structures (favourite because they involve a lot of rule-learning, and tests based on them will sort out the sheep from the goats very effectively) were not found necessary in order to communicate effectively at this level, nor were they suggested by the native speakers who read the material (see the structural comparisons in 7.2).

As with the choice of lexical items, acceptability within the minimum was an important criterion, but the final checks by FLT experts and German teachers should have helped to ensure that known avoidable difficulties have been kept to a minimum (see 4.6.3). One factor influencing difficulty which is not in dispute is sentence length. Sentences in the foundation dialogues have been deliberately kept short for this reason (HEUER, 1971).

Examples of the listed structures in use are of course available in the foundation dialogues. However, there is no possible way of calculating what other sentences might be generated by pupils using these structures: "Was gelernt werden muß, weil es das einzige ist, was einigermaßen vollständing gelernt werden kann, ist nach wie vor der satzerzeugende (und satzinterpretierende) Apparat der grammatischen Regelungen ..., nicht aber die unübersehbare Menge von mit seiner Hilfe produzierbaren Satzmustern (oder gar Sätzen)." (MÜLLER, 1975b:62).

The flexibility and creativity with which pupils may use the minimal grammar of the dialogues is outside the scope of the study. It depends on their own ability and motivation, upon choosing structures for input which really can be

used in a wide variety of contexts, and upon the ability and methods of the teacher. Only the second of these three factors is under the control of the compiler of a list of structures: "an erster Stelle steht die linguistische Deskription einer Sprache für die Zwecke des Fremdsprachenunterrichts (FSG), weil man erst wissen muß, was man vermitteln will, ehe man darüber entscheiden kann, wie man es vermittelt. Auf keinen Fall darf die Theorie durch die Methode ersetzt werden, darf das Was ausschließlich vom Wie her bestimmt werden." (HELBIG, 1972:14)

Zydatiß' finding that about half the uses of the continuous and progressive forms in his corpus collected from 10th classes in Gymnasien in Berlin were inappropriate (ZYDATIß, 1977), underlines very effectively the dangers of teaching one structure after another without any regard for relative frequency, and with very little regard for anything more than a temporary and superficial "mastery" of each structure in turn which may not last beyond the next test.

4.3.4.4 Speech and discourse functions

The classification of speech acts in the foundation dialogues follows the list in Waystage (VAN EK and ALEXANDER, 1977: 13-14). As not all the speech functions covered in the dialogues were included in this list, additions had to be made on an ad hoc basis (see 7.3 and Appendix 2).

No generally accepted list of discourse functions for use at this level is known to the author. As a tentative first step in this direction, notes on speech material which can only be adequately explained at the discourse level have been included in the reference pages for the dialogues.

5.3 The evolution of a typical dialogue

The steps in the production of the foundation dialogues were listed in the introduction (see 1.4), and need not be repeated here.

The actual process of writing and modifying the dialogues is best compared with the group production of a plaster model. Like most such models, they are intended to represent something in the real world, in this case the English language. The limitations set by a particular material are paralleled here by limitations in the amount of language which can be used. The final product should nevertheless look like the real thing. It should be acceptable.

Acceptability for the dialogues is a multiple criterion involving tension in at least two directions. They need to be as simple as possible without the language becoming unacceptable, and as useful as possible without becoming too extensive and complex for the ordinary learner to be able to master them.

It has been maintained throughout that these tensions cannot be satisfactorily resolved in the abstract. Pre-syllabus dialogues were chosen as a suitable form to work with, for reasons which have already been discussed. This form has the unique advantage that different kinds of knowledge, and the contributions of different kinds of informants, can easily be brought to bear on it.

As with the plaster model referred to above, it is possible to add and take away material as required, until the point has been reached where further changes bring only marginal gains, or gains for which the price in terms of quantity or complexity is too high.

An attempt to illustrate this process in the case of a sample dialogue follows. The final versions of the other dialogues were arrived at in the same way.

source of change: A - American comments S - students
C - compiler W - word lists
G - German teachers * - FLT experts
NS - native speakers (NC - no change)
(Brackets round these letters or the asterisk indicate that a change was considered, but not made.)

Word field options which have been changed are given in brackets. Additions and changes which are not immediately obvious have been underlined.

17 IN A RESTAURANT/SNACK BAR		sour of chan
original version	final version	
(A and B are in a restaurant. A is paying. C is a waiter.)	(A and B are in a restaurant. A is paying. C is a waiter. A is a middle-aged man.)	C (*)
Not too bad, you know in the following section seen as unlikely for a young speaker. One expert nevertheless regarded this addition as unnecessary.		
	A: Hello, B, how are you? B: Fine/very well, thanks. And you? A: Not too bad, you know. What would you like?	S
A: What would you like?		
Students felt that it was strange to begin this dialogue with What would you like. As an opening exchange between acquaintances who had not seen one another for some time did not occur in the original version of the dialogues, this was seen as an ideal place to add it.		
B: I don't know. What are you having?	→	NC
A: I think I'll have (steak and kidney pie)	(this option omitted)	A
As both steak and pie are available elsewhere in the dialogues, the American comment that steak and kidney pie is not "normal fare" in the US tipped the balance against this item.		
B: I'll have the same - with peas and carrots.	→	NC

A: I don't like peas very much. I'd prefer a salad with mine.	A: I don't like peas very much. I'd rather have a salad with mine.	NS

The compiler felt that he might have been too much influenced by speech function lists which include formulations like expressing preference. As several NS preferred I'd rather, it replaces I'd prefer. One expert was in favour of retaining prefer (see the reference pages for dialogues 10 and 31).

A: What kind of potatoes would you like? B: Er - roast, please.	→	NC

A: I'm having ordinary potatoes. I have to be careful.	A: I'm having boiled potatoes. I have to be careful.	NS A

One NS and A felt that ordinary was inappropriate here. As ordinary occurs elsewhere in the dialogues in any case, it was replaced by boiled here. (Boiled potatoes = ordinary potatoes may have been an example of the compiler's idiolect/idiosyncratic world-view.)

A: Shall we have a starter? B: I think I'll have tomato soup. A: Orange juice for me - and I'll have --- afterwards. (later) B: Could you pass the ---, please. A: Yes, of course. (later) A: Could I have the bill, please.	→	NC

C: There you are, Sir. I hope you enjoyed your meal.	C: Here you are, Sir. I hope you enjoyed your meal.	G

One G felt that German learners should not be burdened with both forms, as the differences between there you are and here you are are relatively small and difficult to explain. This argument was accepted.

C: Pay at the cash desk by the door.	C: You can pay at the cash desk near the door.	C L

No one commented on the rather bald imperative in the original. It would not necessarily be rude if said in an appropriate tone of voice, but it was decided that a more overtly polite version would be a better model.

C's thinking was influenced by Lewis's view that where there are alternatives, learners should be taught the version which depends least on intonation (LEWIS, 1980a:8-9).
One G felt that by in this sense was confusing for German learners, who have enough trouble as it is with other uses of by (by six o'clock, by train, etc.) This argument was accepted.

(A and B are in a snack bar.)	(A and B are in a snack bar. They are teenagers. D is a waitress.)	C

Teenager was added here as an important lexical item. Waitress was necessary because of the addition at the end of the dialogue.

A: Can I have the menu, please. B: Here you are.	→	NC
A: I think I'll have ---.	A: I think I'll have --- or something.	*

One expert felt that it would be a good idea to make this decision less definite. As the ability to be vague is very important for second (and first) language users (see, for example, BENEKE, 1979), or something was added.

B: I'm not very hungry. I'll just have ((a) coffee/ tea) and a piece of cake.	B: I'm not very hungry. I'll just have ((a)(cup of) coffee/tea) and a piece of cake.	*

One of the experts suggested the addition of cup of. As a tea in particular is more likely to be said by a waitress than a customer, cup of was added as an option.

A: Okay. Ah, there's the waitress. Excuse me, could we order, please.	→	NC
	D: It's self-service. The trays are over there.	S W

These two sentences were added mainly to introduce the lexical items self-service and tray. Students asked for a translation for "Selbstbedienung", and as this is an important term in many kinds of retail business, it was added. Tray plays a considerable role in social rituals.

	WORD FIELDS	
	in a restaurant	
	to order a meal	W
	to pay for a meal	W
	to leave a tip	W
	to recommend s.th	S
	meat etc.	
	fried	W
	grilled	C
	vegetables	
	beans	W
	French fried (potatoes)	AC
	fruit juices	
	grapefruit juice	W
	desserts/puddings restaurant	*
	seasoning etc.	
	sweet	W
	sour	W

Comments on most of these items are superfluous. To recommend s.th was added as the result of a clear wish on the part of students to be able to translate "Was empfehlen Sie?" They said they would feel unsure of themselves in an English or other foreign restaurant, and would want to ask the waiter's advice. French fried potatoes are a "restaurant" version of chips, and the form is similar to AE French fries. Pudding was suggested by one of the experts as a socially acceptable alternative to dessert, which may sound slightly genteel to some native speakers.

6. The foundation dialogues: texts, notes and lists

Each dialogue has a text page and two reference pages. The lists of lexical items, collocations and grammatical structures are printed separately after the dialogues.

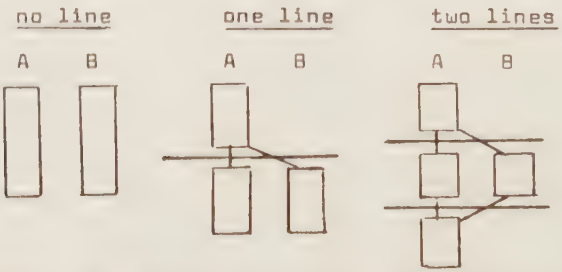
6.1 The dialogues

the text page: introductory notes

Each text page is laid out in the same way, with the text and "stage directions" on the left, interchangeable items etc. on the right, and word field information at the bottom.

Each dialogue has two sections. The second section (B in the diagram below) can be an alternative to part of the first section, or to all of it. In the former case, the point where the alternative section begins is indicated by a short horizontal line on the left:

A second line indicates that the alternative version ends at this point, so that both sections then share the ending of the first.



This arrangement was adopted because it allows considerable flexibility, while remaining essentially uncomplicated. The material in the two sections of each dialogue is of equal importance.

The following points should also be noted:

- Material in titles and stage directions is not included in the lists unless it is underlined (double underlined in the case of word field headings).
- Material which is in brackets or inverted commas in the body of the text is not included in the lists (the only items of this kind occur in dialogues 22 and 28).

- A single dotted line (---) indicates that any lexical item may be selected from the box on the right. A line of equals signs (===) indicates that a longer expression is to be selected from the appropriate box. A straightforward choice of items within the body of the text is indicated by a diagonal line (e.g. to the/round the). Other information referring to interchangeable items is given in brackets on the right.
- A small circle over a word (°) indicates that further items in a related word field are given at the bottom of the page. This additional material is also included in the lists.
- A broken line under an item (e.g. yesterday) indicates that an approximate antonym is being introduced at this point. As a rule, the antonyms could not replace the underlined items in the text or box.

The reference pages: introductory notes

The reference pages contain the following kinds of information relating to each dialogue:

1. A list of collocations
2. A list of speech functions
   The numbers refer to a modified version of the Waystage list of language functions (VAN EK and ALEXANDER, 1977: 13-14). This list is given in Appendix 2. See also Chapter 7.
3. A list of expressions with discourse function
4. suggestions made by British native speakers

   The names of the native speakers who read the original versions of the dialogues are given in Appendix 3.
5. comments by two American native speakers

   The dialogues were also read by Dr Douglas K. Stevenson of the Universität Essen and Mrs Jan Stevenson. Although the background to the dialogues is British (with a switch to a German situation possible in a number of cases), an attempt has been made to produce a version

acceptable to both British and American native speakers wherever possible (see also 3.1)

6. Details of later changes and additions

Some additions were made to the original material in order to remedy deficiencies revealed when using the dialogue situations with German students at the Universität Dortmund. Other additions were made as a result of insights gained from the study of background research areas, particularly discourse analysis (see 4.5). A plus sign (+) indicates material of this kind. Reasons are given for actual changes in the original material. A number of lexical items were added to the word fields as a result of comparing the list of lexical items with other modern word lists (see 4.1). As these additions do not affect the structure of the dialogues in any way, they are not listed separately.

7. First final check: FLT experts

The amended version of the dialogues (see 6 above) was sent to the following four experts:

A. Beile
G. Cass
L.A. Hill
E. Orton

All made favourable or very favourable general comments on the material. All except L.A. Hill also made detailed comments dialogue by dialogue.

The experts were asked the following three questions in connection with the dialogues:

1. Is anything unacceptable?
2. Are there important omissions?
3. Could anything be left out?

There was general agreement that the language of the dialogues is acceptable. Very few changes were suggested on these grounds alone. Beile, for example, regards the language as acceptable throughout. Cass would have marked only one item as unacceptable. He regards at as mandatory

in this sentence: "What's your favourite subject in school?" This view was not shared by any other native speaker judge. Orton suggests a few orthographical changes, e.g. the addition of hyphens to motor cycle (dialogue 6) and five pound note (dialogue 25).

All three experts suggest a limited number of changes, omissions and additions on grounds other than straightforward acceptability. These are dealt with on the second reference page for each dialogue. In a number of cases, additional items which were suggested occur elsewhere in the dialogues in similar contexts. References to these items are not included.

Actual changes in the dialogues made as a result of this first final check are marked with a star (*). A star also appears at the appropriate point in the dialogues.

The origin of each suggestion is indicated (AB = Alice Beile, GC = Graham Cass, EO = Eric Orton).

Three types of suggestion are distinguished, and indicated as follows:

\+ = suggested addition
\- = suggested omission
? = suggested change
(My comments on these suggestions are in brackets)

8. Second final check: German English teachers

The following four teachers were asked to read through the material:

Gisela Becker	(experienced teacher in the Realschule, and examiner for this school form in Bavaria)
Clemens Radau	(experienced teacher in both Realschule and Hauptschule, and experienced textbook author)
Maria Steins	(young teacher in the Realschule)
Doris Wilcke	(experienced teacher and "Fachleiter" - responsible for the postgraduate training of probationary teachers) in the Hauptschule, and textbook author)

These teachers were asked to point out anything which struck them as both very difficult and unnecessary for German learners. The total number of changes suggested was quite small, which implies that this small sample of teachers regarded the dialogues as a broadly acceptable model for German learners.

There were only a few points on which two or more of the informants were in agreement with one another. This tends to confirm that there are very severe problems in trying to decide what is difficult for learners (see also 4.6.3). Nevertheless, every single suggestion was seriously considered. A recurring problem was that items which were criticized were sometimes the very items which it was hoped would enable future learners to avoid "school English" (see for example the comments on "I don't really mind" in dialogue 7, or on the use of past tense for polite requests in dialogue 23). Concentration on difficulty as the main criterion led to a number of suggestions not made by any of the native speaker informants.

Changes made as a result of this check did not involve the introduction of new material of any kind, except for a single lexical item (see dialogue 12). It was therefore not considered necessary to resubmit the dialogues to native speaker judges.

The changes are indicated with a (G) in the margin of the notes, and at the appropriate place in the dialogues. Again the origin of each suggestion is indicated (B = Becker, R = Radau, S = Steins, W = Wilcke).

FOUNDATION DIALOGUES

1. MAKING CONTACT WITH A STRANGER
2. CHATTING TO A NEW ACQUAINTANCE
3. PLANS - WARNINGS - POLITE REQUESTS
4. INTRODUCTIONS
5. HELP ON THE CAMPING SITE
6. ASKING THE WAY
7. TV AND MUSIC
8. SPORTS AND LEISURE
9. JOBS
10. SCHOOL
11. FAMILY
12. HOUSE
13. AT MEALS
14. THANK YOU AND GOODBYE
15. IN A HOTEL
16. AT THE DOCTOR'S/DENTIST'S
17. IN A RESTAURANT/SNACK BAR
18. TRAVEL 1 - AT THE TRAVEL AGENCY/AIRPORT
19. TRAVEL 2 - SHIP AND CUSTOMS
20. TRAVEL 3 - TRAIN AND BUS
21. TRAVEL 4 - TAXI AND HITCH-HIKING
22. AT THE FILLING STATION
23. SHOPPING - A PRESENT OR A FILM
24. SHOPPING FOR CLOTHES - A COMPLAINT
25. BANK AND POST OFFICE
26. THE POLICE
27. TELEPHONING
28. COMPREHENSION DIFFICULTIES
29. APOLOGIZING
30. BORROWING SOMETHING - ASKING A FAVOUR
31. DISCUSSING NATIONAL DIFFERENCES
32. AN ARGUMENT
33. INVITATIONS

(34. AN UNEXPECTED GUEST)

1 MAKING CONTACT WITH A STRANGER

VARIATIONS

(A and B already know one another by sight. Typical meeting place: hotel reception area)

A: Hello.

B: Hello.

A: Are you enjoying your holiday?

B: Yes, thank you. We're having a great time here. It's a nice place. — awful

A: Have you been here before?

B: No, it's our first time.

A: Have you been to the/round the --- yet? — ° castle cathedral harbour market

B: No, not yet. What's it like?

A: Very ---. I'm sure you'd like it. — beautiful interesting

B: Perhaps we could go there tomorrow. — yesterday

A: Try and get there early - it's very crowded. — late

B: Thanks for the tip.

A: Where are you from, by the way?

B: We're from ---. And you? — ° (name of country)

A: Oh, we're from ---. — (name of country - not the same one)

B: Where in --- ? — (A's country)

A: ---. — ° (name of city in A's country)

ALTERNATIVE

A: What do you think of the ° weather?

B: It's marvellous. ° Sun and blue sky/skies every day. — terrible rain cloudy

A: Let's hope it stays like this. It's usually/often very good in ° July. — gets better soon

B: Yes, let's hope so.

A: Well, goodbye for now.

B: Goodbye.

WORD FIELDS

features of town building church house museum shop street

names of countries/nationalities selection including Britain/ British, Germany/German, The US/ American

names of cities selection including London, New York

weather etc. clear cloud cold cool fog(gy) hot (to) rain shade smog (to) snow storm(y) sunny warm bad weather fine weather

the universe moon star (in the) world

names of the months

1 MAKING CONTACT WITH A STRANGER

COLLOCATIONS

to enjoy s.th/oneself
No, not yet
What's it like?
I'm sure (+ noun clause)
I'm sure you'd like it
Perhaps we could ...
Thanks for ...
Where are you from?
by the way
We're from ...
And you?
Where in ... ?
What do you think of ... ?
(Let's) hope (+ noun clause)
Let's hope so
like this
Goodbye for now

SPEECH FUNCTIONS

1.4 Where are you from?
1.4 Where in ... ?
1.6 Have you been here before?
1.6 No, it's our first time.
1.8 Yes, thank you.
2.1 Yes, let's hope so.
2.9 I'm sure you'd like it
3.1 We're having a great time here.
3.1 It's a nice place.
3.8 Thanks for the tip.
3.9 Perhaps we could...
3.10 Have you ..., yet?
3.17 It's marvellous.
5.7 Try and get there ear
6.1 Hello,
6.4 Goodbye (for now).

EXPRESSIONS WITH DISCOURSE FUNCTION

Are you enjoying your holiday? (phatic communion)
What do you think of the weather? (phatic communion)
by the way (changing the subject)
Oh, ... (basic uptaker, cf. EDMONSON and HOUSE, 1981:71-2)
Well, ... (starter, cf. EDMONSON and HOUSE, 1981:64, 79-81)

NATIVE SPEAKER SUGGESTIONS

We might for Perhaps (no change - new structure)
crowded for full (changed)
What do you think of the weather for How do you like the weather here (changed)

AMERICAN COMMENTS

Hi more common than Hello for people who know one another.
vacation for holiday (AE holiday usually refers to public holidays)
around for round

CHANGES/ADDITIONS

+ Have you been here before? No, it's our first time.
Where are you from, by the way? We're from ---. And you?
Oh, we're from ---. Where in --- ?

1 MAKING CONTACT WITH A STRANGER

EXPERT COMMENTS

AB

\+ "I get the impression of a seaside holiday. What about skiing?" (skiing (to ski, to go skiing)included in dialogue 8, skiing holidays not included as a situation)

? Lovely day/weather, isn't it for What do you think of the weather

\+ dreadful (awful and terrible included (dialogue 1))

GC

* ? Perhaps we could ... for Perhaps we'll

? Where do you come from for Where are you from

EO

* ? skies for sky (both included)

GERMAN TEACHER COMMENTS

B

Try to get preferred to try and get - closer to German structure (pairs of imperatives linked by and were regarded as useful and not too difficult. No change)

R

I'm sure you'll like preferred to I'm sure you'd like (decision to go has not been made yet, hence conditional)

W

round the seen as a difficult concept (no change)

BRW

G Whereabouts seen as difficult (replaced with a second where)

(A and B have already chatted to one another on at least one occasion. Typical meeting places: beach, café, shop)

A: Are you staying here long?

B: No, we're only here for ===
How about you?

A: Oh, we're leaving tomorrow. I start work again on Monday.

B: We'll be sorry to leave. We like the --- very much.

A: We're going into town for a last drink this evening. Would you like to come with us?

B: That would be nice. Where are you going?

A: To that little --- near the cathedral. We'll be there at about eight.

B: Okay. See you then/later - and thanks.

a few days	a week
the weekend	
the rest of this week	

beach	night life
countryside	swimming
hotel	pool
mountains	town

glad

first

bar	
café	pub
disco	restaurant
night club	snack bar

ALTERNATIVE

B: I hope you have a good trip home.

A: Thanks. The trip here was terrible.

B: What happened?

A: ===.

B: I hope you have better luck this time.

A: Thanks. By the way,

G

We had an accident
The traffic was very bad all the way
Nothing - but it was so hot in the car

WORD FIELDS

periods of time up to a week

days of the week

features of a holiday resort

parts of the day (in the) morning
afternoon night

places to spend the evening
cinema theatre to go dancing

numbers 1-12

2. CHATTING TO A NEW ACQUAINTANCE

COLLOCATIONS

How about you?
a few days
the rest (of)
to start work
I'll/we'll be sorry to (+ infin.)
very much
to go into town (for s.th)
this morning/afternoon/evening
Would you like to ...
That would be nice
See you (then/later)
What happened?
all the way

SPEECH FUNCTIONS

1.2 We had an accident. (+ other examples)
2.5 That would be nice.
3.1 We like the ... very much.
3.2 The ... is/was (really) awful/terrible.
3.10 Are you staying here long?
3.10 Where are you going?
3.12 Would you like to (come with us/... ?
4.5 (We'll) be sorry to (+ infin.)
6.8 I hope you have a good trip home/better luck this/next time.

EXPRESSIONS WITH DISCOURSE FUNCTION

Are you staying here long? (phatic communion)
How about you? (keeping conversation going)
What happened? (fulfilling conversational expectations)

NATIVE SPEAKER SUGGESTIONS

"Isn't 'nice' a bit suspect?"
"'Nice' in constant use - disagree."

AMERICAN COMMENTS

chatting felt to be a female activity
pub less likely than bar, tavern etc. in AE

CHANGES/ADDITIONS

Would you like to come with us for How about coming with us (simpler structure)

2 CHATTING TO A NEW ACQUAINTANCE

EXPERT COMMENTS

AB

\- I'm afraid - "not necessary, and difficult for Germans to understand"

GC

* ? We're leaving tomorrow for We're off tomorrow (felt to be simpler, and already included (dialogue 26))

* ? I hope you have for I hope you'll have (felt to be simpler) (2 examples)

EO

* + bar (included in dialogue 19, but in a more specialised context)

GERMAN TEACHER COMMENTS

B

about seen as difficult in at about eight (ability to be imprecise regarded as important)

R

G I'm afraid seen as "etwas komisch" here (see also AB's comment above - better context for I'm afraid in 15)

(A and B have already talked to one another on at least one occasion. Meeting place: café at a holiday resort)

A: Where are you going next year?

B: We haven't made any plans yet. How about you?

A: Perhaps we'll go to ---. Have you ever been there? | (name of country or island)

B: We went there last year/two years ago.

If you go to ---, don't go to --- . | (same country/island) (resort in country/ on island)

A: Why not?

B: ===. | It's too crowded / The beach/sea/water/ lake is dirty / Everything is so expensive

A: I expect we'll go somewhere else, then. Further north, perhaps.

B: You'd like ---.

===. But I think we'll stay at home next time. We've been abroad --- now, and I feel like a rest. | (name of country) The people are so friendly / Things are so expensive / The atmosphere/ weather/beach is marvellous

once / twice / three times

ALTERNATIVE

B: Could you pass the --- please | sugar / milk / cream / coffee / rolls

A: Yes, of course. Shall I ask them to turn off that awful/loud music? | turn on

B: Perhaps they'll turn it down a bit, anyway. | turn up

A: (to waiter) Excuse me. Could you turn the music down a bit, please. | waitress

WORD FIELDS

islands selection

points of the compass

south east west

plans to decide to do s.th

café

tea biscuit(s) cake(s)

switches etc. to press (a button)

COLLOCATIONS

Perhaps we'll
Have you ever (been there/to ...)
Why not?
It's too crowded
I expect (+ noun clause)
somewhere else
..., then
You'd like ...
I think (+ noun clause)
I feel like a rest/s.th
Could you (pass the ...), (please)
of course
Shall I ...
anyway
Excuse me
to decide to do s.th

SPEECH FUNCTIONS

1.4 Where are you going (next year)?
1.5 Why not?
1.5 It's too crowded (+ other examples)
1.6 We haven't made any plans yet.
1.7 Perhaps we'll go to ...
1.7 I expect we'll ...
3.14 You'd like ...
5.1 Could you ..., (please).
5.2 Don't (do) ...
5.6 Shall I ... ?

EXPRESSIONS WITH DISCOURSE FUNCTION

..., then. (informal condition, see LEECH and SVARTVIK, 1975:96
You'd like ... (positive politeness strategy, presupposing common ground, see BROWN and LEVINSON, 1978:122-129)
..., anyway. (indicating additional point in an argument, cf. LEECH and SVARTVIK, 1975:157)
Excuse me (attracting a stranger's attention)

NATIVE SPEAKER SUGGESTIONS

But I think we'll stay at home next time (changed)

AMERICAN COMMENTS

Suppose or guess more likely than expect.

CHANGES/ADDITIONS

Could you turn the music down for Do you think you could ... (less complex)

3 PLANS - WARNINGS - POLITE REQUESTS

EXPERT COMMENTS

AB

\+ a change "Logic? holiday abroad = tiring, holiday in home country/at home = restful?"

\- turn on/off in this context

GERMAN TEACHER COMMENTS

B

G may for possibility seen as difficult - perhaps we'll suggested as alternative (alternative adopted)
feel like seen as difficult (retained as important - want a rest suggested as an alternative, but want often sounds rude in the present tense)

R

G If you go to ---, make sure you don't go to --- seen as too long and slightly clumsy (make sure you omitted)

W

I expect could cause problems because there is no direct German equivalent (retained as useful alternative to I think with different shade of meaning)

(A and C already know each other. B is A's companion. Typical meeting places: bar, pub)

A: This is my ---/I'd like you to meet my ---.

B, this is C. We got to know each other in that little ---.

B: Hello.

C: Hello. Nice to meet you.

C: What would you like to drink?

B: --- for me, please

C: How about something stronger?

B: No, thank you.

A: I'd like a ---, please.

C: A big one?

A: No thanks, just a small one.

C: Whose drink is this?

B: Mine, I think.

A,B, and C: Cheers!

wife husband girlfriend boyfriend

(B's first name, C's first (and second) name)

(places to spend the evening)

eat

(half) a pint (of beer)
a lemonade
a lager
a glass of wine

weaker

whisk(e)y
brandy

ALTERNATIVE

(C is older or more important than A and B)

A: May I introduce my ---.

B, this is C

B: How do you do, C.

C: How do you do.

(man-woman relationships)

(B's first name, C: Mr, Mrs, Ms, Miss, Dr + surname)

WORD FIELDS

pub snacks crisps nuts

man-woman relationships

first names

second names/surnames

long drinks

coke orange juice

short/strong drinks gin "Schnapps" sherry vodka

forms of address Mr Mrs Ms Miss Dr

possessive pronouns and adjectives

possessive case of nouns/names

4 INTRODUCTIONS

COLLOCATIONS

to get to know s.o./each other
I'd like you to meet ...
nice to meet you
What would you like to drink/eat?
..., for me, please
how about (+ noun etc.)
no thanks/thank you
I'd like a ..., please
a big one/(just) a small one
May I introduce ...
How do you do

SPEECH FUNCTIONS

2.5 What would you like to drink?
2.5 How about something stronger?
2.5 ... for me, please.
2.5 I'd like ..., please.
2.6 ... No thanks/thank you.
6.3 This is my .../This is C.
6.3 I'd like you to meet ...
6.3 May I introduce ...
6.3 B, this is C.
6.3 Nice to meet you.
6.3 How do you do.
6.6 Cheers!

EXPRESSIONS WITH DISCOURSE FUNCTION

No thanks, just a small one. (polite negative reply)

NATIVE SPEAKER SUGGESTIONS

Two NS supported the idea that it is somehow not polite to add anything to hello or how do you do when being introduced (here: nice to meet you) (no change)

AMERICAN COMMENTS

This is my rather abrupt as the start of an introduction
Pleased to meet you very common as alternative to nice to meet you.
Pints not used in AE (a beer or a glass of beer)
"'Cheers' sounds BE in AE. Generally speaking they avoid saying anything, and 'bottoms up' or 'here's mud in your eye' remind me of westerns."
Would you like a drink preferred to What would you like to drink (version in dialogue implies male speaker).

CHANGES/ADDITIONS

+ Whose drink is this? Mine, I think.

4 INTRODUCTIONS

EXPERT COMMENTS

GC

\+ Can I get you a drink?

* + Mine, I think or That'll be mine for Mine! (first version added)

GERMAN TEACHER COMMENTS

G

I'd like you to meet seen as a difficult structure (included here as a collocation)

W

We got to know each other seen as difficult, mainly because of the length (retained because German learners need an equivalent for sich kennenlernen, and will use a construction with us instead of recip. pronoun if this is not taught)

(A has put his/her tent up next to B's)

A: Excuse me, please. Could you help me?
B: What's the trouble?
A: I forgot to bring any ---.
Could I borrow some?

B: Yes, of course. Just a second.
Here you are.
A: Thank you. I'll give it back later.
B: Do you like the site?
G A: Well, it's all right.
B: I think it's a bit too noisy - it's too near the main road. The ground's a bit wet, too.

A: Well, thanks for your help.
B: That's okay.
A: By the way, is there any electricity on this site?
B: Yes, but it's for the caravans. You'll need a long cable.
A: I only need to plug in my razor/hair dryer.
B: You can plug it in over there in the toilets. You can just see them between those big tents.

bread milk
butter salt
eggs sugar

Could you lend me some?

quiet

dry

short

ALTERNATIVE

B: I'm sorry. I haven't got any either.
A: Oh. Is there a shop on the site?
B: Yes, there's one --- - through the trees/bushes.
G A: Do you think they sell --- ?
B: Yes, I think so. They've got everything.
A: Will they be open?
B: Yes, they're open all day.
A: Where can I throw this rubbish away?
B: The dustbins are over there.

I've got some too

up/down/over there

can/tin openers
cigarettes matches
cups (frying) pans
forks
gas plates
knives saucers
lighters spoons

closed

all night

WORD FIELDS

camping etc. picnic sleeping bag
basic foods cheese flour rice
shaving to (have a) shave

crockery and cutlery etc.

jug kettle

moving heavy objects

to move s.th to pull s.th
to push s.th

5 HELP ON THE CAMPING SITE

COLLOCATIONS

Excuse me, please
Could you help me?
What's the trouble?
Yes, of course
just a second
Here you are
(Well,) it's all right
Thanks for your help
there is/are
That's okay
I (only) need to do s.th
I'm sorry
Do you think ...
I (don't) think so
to throw s.th away

SPEECH FUNCTIONS

1.8 Yes, of course.
1.8 Yes, I think so.
2.4 Is there ... ?
2.5 Here you are.
2.7 You can ...
2.10 (You'll)(only) need ...
3.3 Do you like ...?
3.8 Thanks for your help.
3.8 That's okay.
3.13 (Well,) it's all right
3.17 Do you think ...?
4.1 I'm sorry.
5.4 What's the trouble?
5.5 Could you help me?
6.5 Excuse me, please.

EXPRESSIONS WITH DISCOURSE FUNCTION

I forgot (to bring any) ... (pre-request - here in statement form, c.f EDMONSON, 1979)
just a second (filling silence . cf. APPLEGATE, 1975)

NATIVE SPEAKER SUGGESTIONS

I'll return it later for I'll give you some back later, which was generally felt to be clumsy. (Changed to: I'll give it back later.)

AMERICAN COMMENTS

(House) trailer for caravan
Extension (cord) for lead (changed to cable as more generally useful word also acceptable to American NS)
Outlet for (power) point (verb to plug in introduced instead)
(Electric) shaver for razor (AE razor = "cutthroat" razor)
Store for shop ("Shop usually refers to a specialty (dress shop) establishment.")

CHANGES/ADDITIONS

I only need to plug in... for I only need a point for

+ You can plug it in over there in the toilets. You can just see them between those big tents.

+ A: Where can I throw this rubbish away?
B: The dustbins are over there.

5 HELP ON THE CAMPING SITE

EXPERT COMMENTS

AB

? Do you know if they have for Do you think they'll have

GC

? Could I possibly borrow ... or Do you think I could borrow ... for Could I borrow "I find this a bit blunt, unless the intonation softens it." (not likely to offend after a pre-request)

? I should think so for I think so

GERMAN TEACHER COMMENTS

B

You'll need seen as rather difficult because of the use of future (retained - high transfer value)

R

Use of any after forgot seen as a problem (forgot functions as if a negative - very common expression in this kind of situation)

G they'll have seen as unnecessarily complicated (changed to they sell - see also AB's comment above)

BW

either seen as difficult (B regards these (non-)assertive forms as a problem throughout. They are retained because of their important role in spoken discourse.)

BSW

G I suppose seen as difficult - no close German equivalent (replaced by Well, ...)

(A stops his car and asks B the way)

A: Excuse me, please. Can you tell me the way to the ---.

---

* B: Keep straight on, then turn left/right at the ---. (A: Uhuh.) Go over/under the big bridge. (A: Okay.) Then it's the --- road on the left.

A: Is it far?

B: No, it's only a few ---. You'll see the signs.

A: Thanks for your help.

B: That's okay. I hope you find it - just

* follow the signs. You can't miss it.

A: Where can I get a paper?

B: Over there, near that ---. There's a paper shop just round the corner.

A: Thanks again. Goodbye.

airport
motorway°
nearest car park
shopping centre
tourist information office

(next) big junction
roundabout
traffic lights

first second third

°miles kilometres yards

°(zebra) crossing
letter box
telephone box
toy shop

man/woman/boy/girl with a baby

°ambulance motor bus cycle
lorry truck
van

ALTERNATIVE

B: Sorry, I'm a visitor here.

G You could ===.

A: That's a good idea. Thanks!

B: Goodbye.

ask that policeman
try to buy a map
head for the town/city centre

WORD FIELDS

parking to park a car
road system
ordinals up to third
distances/measurements
foot centimetre metre

in the street side
people
vehicles (bi)cycle

COLLOCATIONS

Can you tell me the way to ...?
Keep straight on
Turn left/right (at the ...)
Go over/under ...
(Then) it's the (first etc.) road on the left/right
Is it far?
It's only a few (miles etc.)
You'll see ...
I hope (+ noun clause)
(Just) follow the signs
You can't miss it
(just) round the corner
Thanks again
I'm a visitor here
You could ...
That's a good idea

SPEECH FUNCTIONS

1.4 Can you tell me ...?
3.8 Thanks again.
4.4 That's a good idea.
5.3 Keep straight on (+ other examples)
5.6 You could ...
6.8 I hope you find it.

EXPRESSIONS WITH DISCOURSE FUNCTION

Uhuh. Okay. (indication reception/comprehension of instructions)
You can't miss it. (ritual closing to "telling s.o. the way")
Sorry, I'm a visitor here. (giving reason for inability to help)

NATIVE SPEAKER SUGGESTIONS

Over there, near that ... replaces lengthy utterance generally felt to be unsuitable

AMERICAN COMMENTS

Could you tell ... preferred to Can you tell ...
(This preference was shared by two British NS. No change because Could ... is available elsewhere in the dialogues, e.g. in 3.)

motorway BE only - freeway probably nearest equivalent

parking lot preferred to car park

Traffic circle preferred to roundabout

paper shop BE in this sense (newspapers normally bought at newspaper rack or drug store). "Out of context I would assume that such a shop sold paper or writing materials."

town centre also BE. Downtown (area) or centre of the town acceptable.

CHANGES/ADDITIONS

None

6 ASKING THE WAY

EXPERT COMMENTS

AB

* + You can't miss it

GC

"I usually find I have to get out of the car to find someone to ask, and so normally am asked something like 'Are you in a car?'"

* + "What about signs of attention, understanding?" (GC is referring to A's reception of B's instructions. Uhuh and okay added)

GERMAN TEACHER COMMENTS

BW

junction regarded as difficult from the point of view of pronunciation. B suggests crossroads as an easier alternative. (However, junction is the general word, whereas crossroads is only one type of junction - no change)

BR

C Why don't you seen as a problem, because German learners are likely to regard it as impolite (although it is the first suggestion for giving positive advice in Impact (WATCYN-JONES, 1979:107) - changed to You could)

(A and B are friends who have passed the "breaking the ice" stage, but don't know each other very well yet. They are in a fairly large town.)

A: What kind of music do you like?

* B: I like --- very much. How about you?

A: Oh, I like ordinary pop - and some classical, too.

Did you see that detective film on TV/television last night?

B: No, I didn't. What was it about?

A: Stolen jewellery. It wasn't too bad.

B: I was watching a documentary on ---. I'm very interested in that kind of programme. *

A: I don't want to watch any more TV this week. Let's go out to a concert.

B: All right. Pop or classical?

A: I don't know. Which would you like?

B: I don't really mind. Sometimes anything is better/more fun than TV.

A: We don't have to go out. If you like, we can stay in and listen to a --- on the stereo. I've just bought the new --- LP.

VARIATIONS

classical music
folk (music)
jazz rock

special

BBC 1 BBC 2 ITV
the other channel

radio

record
cassette

(name of pop group or singer)

ALTERNATIVE

A: Do you watch a lot of TV?

B: No, not very much. Only a few hours a week. I usually watch ---.

A: I like music programmes. I think

G the other programmes are often a bit dull. I don't even watch the news very often.

comedy/funny programmes
films
nature films
news programmes
the news
sports programmes

WORD FIELDS

music to sing, song popular
names of British TV channels
longer periods of time
month year
kinds of TV programme

(farm) animals

cow horse pig sheep bird

names of zoo animals
selection
insects fly mosquito spider wasp

COLLOCATIONS

What kind of ... (do you like)?
What's/what was it about?
not too bad
It isn't/wasn't too bad
the other channel
I'm very interested in (+ noun or -ing form)
I (don't) want to ...
any more
Let's ...
to go out
all right
I don't know
Which would you like?
I don't (really) mind
if you like
to stay in
a lot of
not very much

SPEECH FUNCTIONS

2.1 All right.
2.3 I don't know.
3.1 I like ... (very much).
3.1 I'm very interested in (+ noun or -ing form)
3.3 What kind of ... do you like?
3.7 Pop or classical?
3.7 Which would you like?
3.13 I don't really mind.
3.17 It isn't/wasn't too bad.
5.6 Let's (do s.th).

EXPRESSIONS WITH DISCOURSE FUNCTION

If you like, we can ... (taking partner's wishes into account)
What's/what was it about? (phatic communion)
Only a few hours a week. I usually watch ... (keeping the conversation going)

NATIVE SPEAKER SUGGESTIONS

What sort of music do you like for What's your favourite kind of music (changed to What kind of music do you like).
We can stay in for We can stay at home (changed)

AMERICAN COMMENTS

also against What's your favourite kind of music ("sounds like a questionnaire")
Pop felt to be too general a term
Let's go to a concert preferred to Let's go out to a concert
It makes no difference or I don't have any special preference preferred to I don't really mind
"... are usually a bit dull sounds clumsy."(usually omitted)

CHANGES/ADDITIONS

+ What was it about? Stolen jewellery. It wasn't too bad.
+ I've just bought the new ... LP.

7 TV AND MUSIC

EXPERT COMMENTS

GC

* + rock (music)

+ turn over, the other channel, adverts

* the other channel added (this also makes it possible to refer to Channel 4)

GERMAN TEACHER COMMENTS

B

It wasn't too bad criticized: "Zum 'understatement' muß der Sprecher wirklich 'englisch denken'" (retained because this understatement also exists in German, and because it is important to be able to express opinions between good and bad)

R

G a bit dull seen as too general (suggestion to add often adopted - see also the American comments)

BS

I don't really mind seen as difficult (B suggests it makes no difference or it's all the same to me as possibly easier equivalents. One of these expressions is obviously necessary, but it would need tests to find out which is easiest to memorise as a chunk and use as a slot-filler - no change)

(A and B are friends who have passed the "breaking the ice" stage, but don't know each other very well yet. A is a man and B is a woman.)

G A: It's nearly °autumn. It'll soon be time for °football again.

B: I like the summer better. I can ---.

A: Football is marvellous! Can you imagine it? X runs down the line with the ball. He passes to Y. Y kicks it - goal! One-nil. Yes, football is great!

°go sailing
go swimming
play tennis

up

(X and Y - names of footballers)

B: I thought you played football.

A: Oh no. I like watching football.

I don't like playing games.
It's hard work - and it's dangerous.
I'd rather play ---.

easy safe

°the piano
my guitar

B: How do you keep fit then?

A: I take the dog out.

B: Do you run with him?

A: The dog runs. I walk!

cat

her

ALTERNATIVE

B: So is °tennis. P serves hard. Q gets it, but it's too high. P hits it past Q, into the corner of the court. Tennis is just as exciting as football. I'm not very good at it, but I really enjoy it.

(P and Q - names of tennis players)

low

WORD FIELDS

the seasons spring summer winter

basic football terms corner foul free kick match penalty referee stadium team

sports etc. to climb/go climbing to go fishing to ride/go riding to sail (a boat) to ski/go skiing to swim to win/lose a game/race to throw/catch a ball (own favourite sport or leisure activity) to relax

musical instruments (own instrument)

*pets (own pet)

basic tennis terms racket net

COLLOCATIONS

time for s.th
I like ... better
Can you imagine it?
I thought you (did s.th)
Oh no
to like doing s.th
I'd rather
to keep fit
to take s.o./s.th out
So is B
(just) as ... as
(not) to be (very) good at s.th

SPEECH FUNCTIONS

1.2 X runs down the line ...
1.4 How do you(keep fit)then?
1.5 It's (hard work), and it's (dangerous).
3.2 I don't like (playing games).
3.7 I like (the summer) better
3.7 I'd rather ...
3.14 Can you imagine it?

EXPRESSIONS WITH DISCOURSE FUNCTION

B: I thought you played football.
A: Oh no. I like watching football.
(emphatic intonation used to correct previous false assumptions)

NATIVE SPEAKER SUGGESTIONS

A: I take the dog out.
B: Do you run with him?
(replaces similar slightly longer exchange felt to be "stilted")

AMERICAN COMMENTS

BE football = AE soccer
(AE football = BE American football)

CHANGES/ADDITIONS

+ I'd rather play ... (very common way of expressing preference see notes on 10)
P serves hard originally read ... down the centre.
(down the centre omitted as too specialized)

8 SPORTS AND LEISURE

EXPERT COMMENTS

AB

\- "Delete the man/woman reference in the introduction."

? Imitated commentaries felt to be rather contrived. Speakers could be listening to real commentaries.

GC

\+ Oh no! as reaction to unfavourable events in a game (included in this dialogue in a different context) Oh! (dialogue 1) and Oh dear! (dialogue 21) also included)

\+ "Ways of asking about the score" (Who-questions are included, as are to win and to lose (dialogue 8))

* \+ pet, (own pet) (see notes on dialogue 11)

GERMAN TEACHER COMMENTS

B

Can you imagine seen as unnecessary (see also AB's comment above - use of the imagination seen as the most economical way to introduce sporting terms - a degree of artificiality is not denied here)

R

G It will should be short form in the interests of consistency (changed)

S

I'd rather seen as difficult (retained, - see also native speaker notes to 10, and AB's comment on 28)

(A and B are friends who have passed the "breaking the ice" stage, but don't know each other very well yet. They have met on holiday.)

A: I'm not looking forward to work on Monday.

G B: Nor am I. What's your job, by the way?

A: Oh, I work ---.

How about you?

B: I'm a ---.

A: Is your job all right?

B: It's not too bad. And yours?

A: I'm always so tired in the evenings.

B: I know the feeling! Try and make the most of your last few days. Cigarette?

A: No, thanks. ===

B: Do you mind if I smoke?

A: No, of course not. Go ahead.

in a shop
an office
a factory
for a big/small company

businessman/woman
civil servant
construction worker
(truck/lorry) driver
housewife
rep.
salesperson
secretary
teacher

never

I don't smoke
I've given it up

ALTERNATIVE

B: Is it a good job?

A: Yes, quite good. I'm with ---.

B: You're quite important then.

A: I wouldn't say that. But when something goes wrong, it's always my fault.

(name of international company)

right

WORD FIELDS

places of work (name of own company)

jobs (own job) pay

* What's the pay like?

to be in the army/
in industry meeting

positions in a company

boss senior/junior executive
foreman sales/personnel manager

names of international companies

selection

COLLOCATIONS

(to be/go/meet) on holiday
to look forward to s.th
nor am I
What's your job?
to (try and) make the most of s.th
your/the last few days
Cigarette?
to give s.th up
Do you mind if I (smoke)?
Of course not
Go ahead
quite good
I'm with (name of company)
to go wrong
when something goes wrong,...
it's (always/not) my fault
What's (the pay) like?

SPEECH FUNCTIONS

2.5 Cigarette?
2.6 No, thanks.
2.12 Do you mind if I smoke?
2.12 No, of course not. Go ahead.
3.13 It's not too bad.
3.14 I know the feeling!
5.7 Try and make the most of s.th

EXPRESSIONS WITH DISCOURSE FUNCTION

And yours? (reciprocal enquiry fulfilling conversational expectations)
I don't smoke/I've given it up. (polite refusal of offer)
I wouldn't say that. (playing down probable superior status)

NATIVE SPEAKER SUGGESTIONS

None

AMERICAN COMMENTS

council worker B.E only (omitted - broadly covered by civil servant)

construction worker for building worker (changed, partly because building worker has doubtful status in this kind of situation - comments below could apply in reverse) "I can't imagine anyone actually saying 'I'm a senior executive' in casual conversation. He must downplay his position such as 'I'm with General Motors', or appear to be a braggart or a snob." (changed - senior jobs covered in word field instead)

CHANGES/ADDITIONS

None

9 JOBS

EXPERT COMMENTS

AB

? What's your job like for Is your job all right
(first form also included (dialogue 11))

\+ Oh, I enjoy it, but I'm always so tired ... for
I'm always so tired ... version in dialogue "doesn't follow"

GC

\+ unemployed (concept can be expressed without this addition:
"I haven't got a job at the moment.")

* + "some reference to pay" (speakers probably do not know each
other well enough to discuss pay - pay added to word field
jobs)

GERMAN TEACHER COMMENTS

B

G What do you do seen as very difficult, because it involves
the whole problem of "simple or continuous" when seen from
a German student's point of view (changed to What's your
job, which avoids the problem and is generally more
explicit)

S

Nor am I seen as difficult (see German teacher comments on
5)

(A and B are still at school. They are friends who have passed the "breaking the ice" stage, but don't know each other very well yet. They go to different schools.)

A: How old are you?

B: °Fourteen - my birthday's on ---.
When is yours?

A: In May. I'm fourteen too. I'm in the third form at our comprehensive.
What's your favourite subject in °school?

G B: ---.

A: I like --- best.

young
°°°
(date)

°
English
French
German

games
geography
history
maths
PE
science

worst

B: Do you? Why?

A: Well, I like the teacher. S/he's always ---. I'm quite good at
* ---, too.

B: One of our teachers is really awful. S/he's so ---. I can never answer his/her questions. They're so difficult.

°
friendly
helpful
kind
nice

stupid
unfair
unfriendly

(subject as above)

answers

A: Do you have much homework?

B: It's not too bad. But we have to do a lot of tests.

A: So do we. I suppose school is more or less the same every/anywhere.

nowhere

ALTERNATIVE

B: I'm not very good in school. I'm too ---.
My friend --- is different. S/he's really clever. Everything is so easy for him/her.

A: Never mind. I expect you're good at other things.

quiet nervous

(first name)

WORD FIELDS
numbers 13-20
expressing the date
(including the year)
ordinal numbers above third
church festivals (at)
Christmas Easter

kinds of school
grammar school secondary school
languages Italian Russian Spanish
to learn a language
school etc. student to teach
to pass an exam
characteristics fair

COLLOCATIONS

(to be) (still) at school
How old are you?
When is (your birthday)?
My birthday's on (+ date)
What's your favourite ...
to like s.th best
to be (quite) good at s.th
one of
So do I/we
I suppose (+ noun clause)
more or less
the same
(not) to be very good in schoo
Never mind
to learn a language

SPEECH FUNCTIONS

1.4 How old are you?
1.4 When is your birthday?
2.10 We have to do ...
3.7 What's your favourite ...?
3.7 to like s.th best
3.16 Never mind.
3.17 I suppose (school) is (more or less the same everywhere).

EXPRESSIONS WITH DISCOURSE FUNCTION

Do you? (Uptaker, cf. EDMONSON and HOUSE, 1981:62-3.
See also ABERCROMBIE, 1953-4)
So do we. (establishing common ground)

NATIVE SPEAKER SUGGESTIONS

I like (... better/best) for I prefer (changed - NS consistently preferred to express preference without prefer - see also notes to 8)

AMERICAN COMMENTS

comprehensive (school) BE only, very approximate AE equivalent high school
grade for form
(type of school would not normally be mentioned)
math for maths
to be good in a subject preferred to to be good at ...
to take/have a test preferred to to do a test
smart/intelligent preferred to clever

CHANGES/ADDITIONS

+ 8: When is yours?
A: In May.
(It was felt that the standard questions when is yours/your birthday should be included.)

+ I can never answer his/her questions. They're so difficult.
She's really clever originally read ..., and not at all nervous
(latter part omitted as unnecessary)

10 SCHOOL

EXPERT COMMENTS

AB

? I'm in the third form ... "don't think this info. would be volunteered" AB goes on to suggest a suitable question for eliciting this information.

? She gets good marks in everything for Everything is so easy for him/her

GC

+ can't stand s.o./s.th (don't like (dialogue 8) and hate (dialogue 31) included. As hate was included with misgivings, it has been replaced by can't stand in dialogue 31.)

* ? the subject felt to be too explicit (replaced by name of subject in question)

+ public school, prep school (too specialized at this level)

EO

- "I'd say that 'friends', even if not close friends yet, would know each other's age."

- stupid possibly not acceptable in some parts of Germany, if used in connection with teachers. "In any case, the next two sentences don't really fit in with 'stupid'."

GERMAN TEACHER COMMENTS

S

suggests that AE math and good in would be easier for German pupils than BE maths and good at (no change, as this would be against the principle of basing the corpus on BE - see 3.1)

R

G I like --- and --- best felt to be less likely than a short answer (changed, but the useful expression I like --- best is retained as A's next turn)

S

more or less regarded as unlikely to be produced by German pupils (retained as a useful way of expressing imprecision - see also the German teacher comments on 2)

(A and B are girls who have passed the "breaking the ice" stage, but they don't know each other very well yet.)

A: Have you got any brothers or sisters?

B: Just one brother.

A: Is he older or younger than you?

B: Two years older.

A: What's he like?

B: Oh, he's all right.

A: No, I mean what does he look like?

B: Oh, I see! He's quite tall, with dark hair.

fair

A: Our family is quite big. I've got two sisters. One of my sisters is married. She and her husband live with us, and so does one of my ---.

- grandfathers
- grandmothers
- uncles
- aunts

B: Do you all get on all right?

A: Most of the time. But we all have to help Mum with the --- and so on.

Dad

- housework
- meals
- washing up

Have you got your own room?

B: Yes. I suppose I'm quite lucky.

unlucky

A: I have to share with one of my sisters. I don't really mind, but I'd like to be alone for a while sometimes.

A: Of course. I think everybody would.

ALTERNATIVE

A: We don't always get on very well. My sisters often get on my nerves - you know how it is.

B: We have the same trouble, but I'm a bit sorry for my brother really.

A: Why?

B: Well, he's rather quiet - when he's not annoying me!

WORD FIELDS

family relationships etc.
parent father mother couple
(grand)son (grand)daughter
cousin was/were born

personal description
short fat thin good-looking
jobs in the home
meals breakfast lunch dinner tea

COLLOCATIONS

Have you got any (brothers or sisters)?
What's (he) like?
I mean, ...
What does he look like?
I see!
so does (+ noun etc.)
to get on (all right) with s.o.
most of the time
and so on
(your) own ...
for a while
... get(s) on (my) nerves
You know how it is
..., really
to be sorry for s.o.
was/were born

SPEECH FUNCTIONS

1.2 Our family is quite big. (etc.)
1.4 Have you got any brothers or sisters?
2.1 of course
3.4 I suppose I'm quite lucky.
3.5 We don't (always) get on very well.
3.14 You know how it is.

EXPRESSIONS WITH DISCOURSE FUNCTION

I mean (basic clarifier, cf. EDMONSON and HOUSE, 1981:83)
I see. (basic uptaker, cf. EDMONSON and HOUSE, 1981:71
You know how it is. (positive politeness strategy, presupposing common ground, cf. BROWN and LEVINSON, 1978:122-129)

NATIVE SPEAKER SUGGESTIONS

She and her husband replaces the young couple, which was generally felt to be inappropriate in this context.

AMERICAN COMMENTS

the young couple felt to be inappropriate (see above)
to get along (with) generally preferred to to get on (with)
Mum BE only (AE:Mom)
"get on my nerves sounds more real than annoy"
(One British NS also preferred get on my nerves. In view of the parallel German expression "Er geht mir auf die Nerven" it was decided to include ... get(s) on (my) nerves as well as to annoy.)

CHANGES/ADDITIONS

+A: What's he like?
B: Oh, he's all right.
A: No, I mean what does he look like.
B: Oh, I see! He's quite tall, with dark hair.

11 FAMILY

EXPERT COMMENTS

AB

- References to Mum and Dad could be interpreted as sexist.

GC

+ divorced (concept could be expressed, e.g.
A: Are you married?
B: No, not any more (any more is in dialogue 27)
+ "Are pets part of the family?"
(own pet added to dog and cat in dialogue 8)

GERMAN TEACHER COMMENTS

R

or younger regarded as not strictly necessary (not logical to ask only if the brother is older - no change)
Do you get on all right? "Schwierig! Man erwartet im Deutschen das "Miteinander" (no addition - with one another would make this turn very long)

W

problem for German pupils with lucky and happy (this is a classic "teaching point" - there is no way of avoiding the problem)

(B is looking (a)round A's English house.)

A: This is the living room. We spend most of our time in here. We eat in here too - except for breakfast. These houses haven't got a dining room.

B: Where is/are the ---?

A: It's/they're ---.

B: I like the --- very much.

A: Do you? We weren't too sure about the colour.

B: I think --- goes very well with the other colours.

A: Perhaps you're right. Let's have a look at the garden. The --- is/are always so pretty/attractive at this time of year.

flats

bathroom
bedrooms
kitchen

downstairs
upstairs
over there

carpet sideboard
chairs sofa
curtains table
furniture wall unit

blue orange
brown red
green yellow
grey

flowers
grass
lawn
trees

ALTERNATIVE

B: Your kitchen/bathroom/bedroom is very modern

A: The --- is/are only a few months old.

But we must do something about/paint the --- soon.

B: Oh, I didn't notice anything - I'm sure it's/they're all right.

dishwasher
freezer
fridge
sink (unit)
tiles
washing machine
working surface

basin
shower
bath

wardrobe
bed

ceiling
walls

WORD FIELDS house cellar front/back door fire floor garage hall heating lights wallpaper window to open to close
living room furniture etc.
picture traditional (furniture) (book)shelf/shelves comfortable
colours black white

garden

kitchen (kitchen) clock drawer(s)
to cook

bathroom mirror

accommodation to rent a flat/room

12 HOUSE

COLLOCATIONS

to look (a)round
to spend (most of)(one's) time in here
except for
not to be (too) sure (about s.th)
to go (very) well with s.th
to have a look (at s.th)
time of (year)
a few (months) old
we must (do s.th)
to do something about s.th
to rent a flat/a room

SPEECH FUNCTIONS

1.1 This is the (living room).
2.1 Perhaps you're right.
2.9 We weren't too sure about (the colour).
2.9 I'm sure it's/they're all right.
6.7 I like the/your ... very much.
6.7 Your (kitchen) is very (modern).

EXPRESSIONS WITH DISCOURSE FUNCTION

I think (brown) goes very well with the other colours.
Oh, I didn't notice anything - I'm sure it's/they're all right. (reassuring speech partner, who expects a positive answer)

NATIVE SPEAKER SUGGESTIONS

haven't got for don't have (changed, as this was the only example of don't have, although only one British NS commented on it as "more American".)
Pretty or attractive suggested for nice in this context (both included)

AMERICAN COMMENTS

"Either don't have or haven't got would ... work in AE, with don't more common ..."
sideboard rare in AE
cooker BE only (AE: stove)
wardrobe rare in AE because closets are almost universal
"American bathrooms usually have a sink instead of a basin."

CHANGES/ADDITIONS

+ Oh, I didn't notice anything - I'm sure it's all right.
The lexical item reproduction (furniture) was added when it was discovered that not one member of the author's VHS class could have answered the question "What kind of furniture have you got in your living room?" without it.

12 HOUSE

EXPERT COMMENTS

AB

? British for English (both included in the dialogues)

? Glad you like it for Perhaps you're right (I'm glad you like it is included (dialogue 13)

? It looks all right to me for I'm sure it's all right

GC

* + front/back door (added to word field house)

GERMAN TEACHER COMMENTS

B

Really preferred to do you as more straightforward for German pupils (really could be interpreted as expressing disbelief - as no one else objected to this response, it is retained. See also ABERCROMBIE, 1953-4)

G to have to do s.th about s.th regarded as difficult. (As this is a general purpose expression of the type which can be very useful for learners who do not know a more precise term - see for example BENEKE, 1979:258-259 and 4.5.5 above - it has been retained, but with must to keep it as short as possible)

W

G The term reproduction furniture in the word field living room furniture etc. was objected to as too specialised. (As the need for some such term was clear (see notes on changes/additions on the previous page) it was decided to include the more generally useful word traditional instead)

(B is German. S/he is staying with an English family. It is her first day. A is an English housewife.)

A: Would you like some more ---, B?

B: Yes, please. But not too much. Everything is really delicious.

A: I'm glad you like it.
(later)
Would you like some more ---?

---

* B: No, thank you. ===.

A: Are you sure?

B: No, that was lovely, thank you.

* A: All right.
Now tell me what you'd like for breakfast tomorrow. How about cornflakes, bacon and egg, toast and marmalade?

* B: That's a lot! At home I only have a roll and black coffee.

A: When do you usually get up?

B: Between seven and eight, if that's all right.

VARIATIONS

- meat
- potatoes
- vegetables

(B's first name)

sorry

- apple pie (and custard/cream)
- fruit salad
- ice cream
- rice/milk pudding

- I really can't manage any more
- I have to be (very) careful

careless

jam

white

go to bed

ALTERNATIVE

A: Help yourself to another sandwich, B.
Those are cheese, and those are ---.
There's some more pork pie and salad, too.

B: Just a bit more lettuce, please.
(later)

A: How about another (piece of) ---?
Or there's a(n) ---, if you like.

- egg
- ham
- tomato

- biscuit (fruit/chocolate)
- cake
- jam tart

- apple banana orange

WORD FIELDS

main course gravy
desserts - home
breakfast
eggs (soft or hard) boiled egg
fried egg, omelette
daily routine to get/come home
to go to school/work
to go to sleep to wake up

sandwiches and salad
cakes and biscuits
fruit

13 AT MEALS

COLLOCATIONS

Would you like some (more) ...
Yes, please
(but) not too much
I'm glad you like it
to manage
I (really) can't manage any more
to tell s.o. s.th
to tell s.o. (+ noun clause)

for (breakfast)
to get up
to go to bed
if that's all right
help yourself (to ...)
to get/come home
to go to school/work
to go to sleep
to wake up

SPEECH FUNCTIONS

2.5 Would you like some (more) ...

2.5 Yes, please.

3.17 That's a lot!

5.3 Tell me (what you'd like)(for breakfast)

6.7 Everything is really delicious.

6.7 I'm glad you like it.

EXPRESSIONS WITH DISCOURSE FUNCTION

I really can't manage any more.
I have to be (very) careful.
(polite refusal)

Are you sure?
(ritualized second enquiry)

if that's all right
(taking speech partner's, i.e. host's
normal routine into account)

Just a bit more(...), please
(avoiding refusal by accepting a small quantity)

NATIVE SPEAKER SUGGESTIONS

None

AMERICAN COMMENTS

Would you like some more for You'd like some more, would't you

"Regardless of how You'd like some more, wouldn't you was spoken, I would be hostile ... It also makes refusal somewhat more difficult." (changed)

"I really mustn't sounds coy." (omitted)

bacon and eggs for bacon and egg

cookies for biscuits (but some types of biscuits are called cookies in BE, and there is no expression cakes and cookies to parallel BE cakes and biscuits)

jam tart and pork pie mainly BE

"Most Americans haven't the faintest idea what to do with a soft boiled egg."

CHANGES/ADDITIONS

+ A: When do you usually get up?
B: Between seven and eight, if that's all right.

13 AT MEALS

EXPERT COMMENTS

AB

* + A: Are you sure?
B: No, that was lovely, thank you.
(AB suggested Sure? for A here)
"This is virtually obligatory. A good hostess can't give up so soon."

* - All right, if you really can't. "sounds a bit peevish"
(All right alone retained)

* ? Stop, please! felt to be rather abrupt
Goodness, do you always eat so much or That's a lot! suggested as alternatives. (That's a lot replaces Stop, please!)

? if that's all right felt to require "a mental jump" in this context

GC

+ There's plenty more, to leave the table,
"common expressions in this context" (but not essential)

EO

"I'd rather use the last two lines to resolve the cliffhanger of what she'll get/have for breakfast." (A German student who had worked on this material would know most common breakfast items - the issue does not need to be resolved in the dialogue.)

GERMAN TEACHER COMMENTS

B

help yourself (to) regarded as a difficult structure
(it is a collocation here - no change)

S

if that's all right seen as unnecessary (it would be important for a visitor to demonstrate willingness to fit in with the family routine - no change)

(B has been staying with A in England.
A has taken him/her to the station/airport.)

A: Well, goodbye then, B.

B: Goodbye A. Thank you very much for looking after me. I've had a marvellous time.

A: We enjoyed having you. ===, won't you.

B: Yes, of course. Oh, I think that's my train/flight.

A: Let me carry your ---. It looks sort of heavy.

B: It's all right, thanks. I can manage. Goodbye - and thanks again.

A: Goodbye! Have a good journey.

(B's first name)

(A's first name or form of address + second name if A is considerably older)

come again soon
you'll write to us
remember me/us to
your parents/family

read

luggage
bag
(suit)case

light

ALTERNATIVE

(B has been spending an evening with A)

B: I really must go now.

A: Can't you stay a bit longer?

B: I'm afraid not. It's very late. Thank you for ===.

A: I'm glad you enjoyed it.

B: Well, good night then. And thanks again.

A: Good night.

G

the delicious meal
the lovely evening
everything

WORD FIELDS

luggage etc.

umbrella to pack

COLLOCATIONS

Well, goodbye then, B
Thank you very much for looking after me
I've had a marvellous time
We enjoyed having you
Come again soon, (won't you)
Remember (me) to your (parents/family), (won't you)
Let me ...
sort of
(It) looks (sort of)(heavy)
It's all right, thanks
I can manage
Have a good (journey/trip)
Have a nice (evening/weekend
I really must go now
I'm afraid not
Thank you for ...
I'm glad you enjoyed it
(Well,) good night (then)

SPEECH FUNCTIONS

3.4 I've had a marvellous time.
3.8 Thank you very much for looking after me.
3.8 I'm glad you enjoyed it.
5.4 Let me (carry your ...).
5.4 It's all right, thanks.
6.4 Well, goodbye then, B.
6.4 Come again soon, (won't you) (+ other examples)
6.4 I really must go now.
6.4 (Well,) good night (then).
6.8 Have a good journey/trip.
6.8 Have a nice evening/weekend.

EXPRESSIONS WITH DISCOURSE FUNCTION

B: I really must go now.
A: Can't you stay a bit longer?
B: I'm afraid not. It's very late ...
(closing section, cf. SCHEGLOFF and SACKS, 1973)

NATIVE SPEAKER SUGGESTIONS

None

AMERICAN COMMENTS

Please don't bother could offend.
(changed to It's all right, thanks)
"I really must be off now doesn't sound right."
(changed to I really must go now)

CHANGES/ADDITIONS

+ Well, good night then. And thanks again. Good night.

14 THANK YOU AND GOODBYE

EXPERT COMMENTS

None

GERMAN TEACHER COMMENTS

S

won't you is described as "eine typisch englische Erscheinung" and very advanced (This raises a question of principle: whether to make the language of the dialogues as close to a lingua franca as possible, or to keep links with a national variety. The decision was made here to try to keep these links (see ABBOTT, 1981, and 3.1 above). No change)

G the delicious meal/lovely evening preferred to a lovely meal ... as similar to German usage (changed)

VARIATIONS 242

(A is the hotel receptionist. B is trying to book a room).

A: Good --- . Can I help you?

B: I'd like a single room for a week.

morning
afternoon
evening

double

A: Just a moment. I'm afraid we only have a room for one night. It's a single room with a shower - on the fifth floor.

B: I think I'll take it anyway. How much is it, please?

A: ---. (sum of money)

B: Does that include breakfast?

A: Yes, that includes continental breakfast. A full English breakfast is --- extra. (sum of money)

B: What time is breakfast, please?

A: From 7.30 to 9. Would you just fill in this form, please. I'll ask someone to take up your luggage. The lift is over there.

ALTERNATIVE

A: I'm very sorry. We haven't got anything at all. It's a holiday weekend, you see.

B: Where else could I try?

A: Well, you could try the X, but I expect they'll be full, too. (X - name of hotel)
empty

A: Thank you. I'll try there anyway.

ORD FIELDS
otel ground floor to give s.o. a call
edding blanket pillow
heet
arts of the day
eening clean etc. to have a
hower/bath/wash, to wash/dry
he's hair adapter towel

expressing sums of (English) money
pound p(ence)
telling the time (all figures and with "quarter past" etc)
past to quarter half minute
o'clock a.m. p.m.
What's the time?

COLLOCATIONS

Good morning/afternoon/evening
Can I help you?
for a (week)
Just a moment
(I think) I'll take it (anyway)
How much is it, please?
Does that include ...?
... extra
What time is ..., please?
Would you just ...
to fill in a form
I'm (very) sorry
anything/nothing at all
you see
Where else could I try?
to give s.o. a call
to have a shower/bath/wash
What's the time?

SPEECH FUNCTIONS

1.4 How much is it, please?
1.4 What time is ..., please?
1.4 Where else could I try?
2.5 (I think) I'll take it (anyway)
3.9 I'll try (there) anyway.
4.1 I'm very sorry.
5.3 Would you (just) ..., please.
5.4 Can I help you?
5.6 (Well,) you could try ..., (but ...)
6.1 Good morning/afternoon/evening

EXPRESSIONS WITH DISCOURSE FUNCTION

just a moment (filling silence, cf. APPLEGATE, 1975)
I'm afraid we only have .... (anticipating and attempting to disarm objection)
..., you see (cajoler, cf. EDMONSON and HOUSE, 1981:75-6)

NATIVE SPEAKER SUGGESTIONS

What time is breakfast for When is breakfast (changed - general agreement on this point destroyed hopes of including only when for this kind of question)

AMERICAN COMMENTS

double for twin-bedded (changed)
What time for When (see above)
Could you suggest something else for Where else could I try. (similar suggestion from one British NS)
you see could sound sarcastic

CHANGES/ADDITIONS

None

15 IN A HOTEL

EXPERT COMMENTS

AB

? show you your room for take up your luggage
Taking up luggage felt to be unlikely in a British hotel nowadays
(to show s.o. s.th included (dialogue 23)

GERMAN TEACHER COMMENTS

None

(A is a doctor. B has hurt him/herself while s/he is on holiday.)

A: Good morning. You're the visitor from Germany, aren't you?

B: Yes, that's right.

A: And you've hurt your ---. Sit down here, please. Let's have a look at it.

B: Is it serious?

A: No, I don't think so. I'll clean it up and put a plaster on it for you. I'll give you some cream, too.

B: Thank you, doctor. There is one other thing I wanted to mention. I've had === for the last two or three days.

* A: I see. Let me have a look ... Take this prescription to the chemist's. If the tablets don't help, come back and see me again.

B: Thank you, doctor.

A: Look out! There's a step. You nearly fell then. Do you want to go to hospital?

- ankle
- arm
- back
- ear
- finger
- foot
- hand
- head
- knee
- leg
- shoulder
- thumb

stand up

- a headache
- stomach ache
- a pain in my chest, back etc.
- earache
- a sore throat

ALTERNATIVE

(A is a dentist. B has toothache while s/he is on holiday.)

A: Which tooth is it?

B: This one at the ---.

A: Hmm. There's a big hole in it.

B: Can you fill it for me?

G A: I'll try. But you could still have some trouble with it, I'm afraid. If you do, I'll have to take it out.

- front
- back
- top
- bottom

WORD FIELDS

parts of the body eye face hair heart mouth neck skin

illness etc. to have a cold/cough/flu to be ill to cut s.th to have a (deep) cut on/in to burn one's arm etc. to fall off s.th (to have an) X-ray

positions in the middle

hospital nurse patient

COLLOCATIONS

(Yes,) that's right
to hurt one's ...
for the last (two or three/few) (days)
to have a pain in one's
Let's/let me have a look
come (back) and see me (again)
Look out!
at the front/back/top/bottom
You could (still) have some trouble (with it)
..., I'm afraid

SPEECH FUNCTIONS

1.1 This one at the front/back/top/bottom
1.7 You could (still) have some trouble (with it).
1.7 If ... I'll have to ...
1.8 Yes, that's right.
1.8 No, I don't think so.
2.8 Can you ... (for me)?
2.14 Is it serious?
2.15 You're (the visitor) from ..., aren't you?
5.3 Look out!

EXPRESSIONS WITH DISCOURSE FUNCTION

There is one other thing I wanted to mention.
(introducing new topic in a fairly formal situation)
Do you want to ... (emphatic intonation implying opposite attitude/course of action etc. is normal)
Hmm. (filling pause for thought/inspection)

NATIVE SPEAKER SUGGESTIONS

Be careful for Look out (no change - only 2 NS suggested this change, and careful is included - see 13)

AMERICAN COMMENTS

"plaster in AE is bandage or the small ones are bandaids ... plaster in this sense is not known"
chemist in this sense BE only (AE chemist = someone who works with chemicals)
AE equivalent for BE chemist "is 'pharmacist' or druggist with 'pharmacist' what druggists prefer to be called."
a toochache preferred to some toothache (see below)
cavity preferred to hole (2 British NS shared this view but no change - too specialized)

CHANGES/ADDITIONS

You may still have some trouble with it originally read You may still have some toothache (trouble a general purpose item) (may later replaced by could - see German teacher comment)

16 AT THE DOCTOR'S/DENTIST'S

EXPERT COMMENTS

AB

? And you've hurt your ---? "Clairvoyant?"
(it was assumed that a card would have been filled in by the doctor's receptionist)

? another for one other "One other suggests that at least two have already been mentioned." (this view not general)

* + I see. Let me have a look ... for I see.
"The doctor surely doesn't prescribe without looking at all."

+ Go and see your own dentist when you get home as an alternative to I'll have to take it out (all elements in the alternative included)

GC

+ "Wouldn't a foreigner probably ask about how to pay?"
(This information could be given in German in the English lesson.)

EO

- "I'd cut out the last 3 lines of the main dialogue."
(slight artificiality admitted - but the speech material is important)

GERMAN TEACHER COMMENTS

B

suggests that finger could do duty for thumb, which is a pronunciation problem (use of one for the other would definitely be registered as an error - no change)

to the chemist preferred to to the chemist's because of the "apostrophe s" problem (Some expressions are acceptable without the "'s", others are not - for example the title to this dialogue. Leaving it out here would cause more problems than it solves.)

G You may still have some trouble regarded as difficult
(replaced by could - see also German teacher comments on dialogue 3)

W

Mention possibly not the kind of word a Hauptschüler would use (language included for use by adults too. Mention plays an important role in directing the course of a conversation.)

(A and B are in a restaurant. A is paying. C is a waiter. A is a middle-aged man.)

A: Hello, B, how are you?

B: Fine/very well, thanks. And you?

A: Not too bad, you know. What would you like?

B: I don't know. What are you having?

A: I think I'll have ---.

B: I'll have the same - with peas and carrots.

A: I don't like peas very much. I'd rather have a salad with mine. What kind of potatoes would you like?

B: Er - roast, please.

A: I'm having boiled potatoes. I have to be careful. Shall we have a starter?

B: I think I'll have tomato soup.

A: Orange juice for me - and I'll have --- afterwards.

(later)

B: Could you pass the ---, please.

A: Yes, of course.

(later)

A: Could I have the bill, please.

C: Here you are, Sir. I hope you enjoyed your meal. You can pay at the cash desk near the door.

(B's first name)

steak
roast beef/pork
(a) lamb/pork chop(s)
chicken

(desserts - restaurant)

mustard
pepper
salt

Madam

ALTERNATIVE

(A and B are in a snack bar. They are teenagers. D is a waitress.)

A: Can I have the menu, please.

B: Here you are.

A: I think I'll have --- or something.

B: I'm not very hungry. I'll just have --- and a piece of cake.

A: Okay. Ah, there's the waitress. Excuse me, could we order, please.

D: It's self-service. The trays are over there.

hamburger and chips
egg and chips
fish and chips

thirsty

(a)(cup of) coffee/tea
a coke
(a) lemonade

WORD FIELDS

in a restaurant to order a meal
to pay for a meal to leave a tip
to recommend s.th

meat fried grilled

vegetables beans
French fried (potatoes)

fruit juices grapefruit juice
*desserts/puddings - restaurant
as for desserts - home, + cheese and biscuits, - rice/milk pudding
seasoning etc. sweet (adj.)
sour

17 IN A RESTAURANT/SNACK BAR

COLLOCATIONS

How are you?
Fine/very well, thanks
you know
What would you like?
What are you having?
(I think) I'll (just) have ...
I'm having ...
Shall we (have ...)
... afterwards
Can/could I have (the menu/t
bill, please)
I hope you enjoyed/liked ...
or something
Could we order, please
to pay for a meal
to leave a tip
to recommend s.th

SPEECH FUNCTIONS

1.1 Ah, there's the waitress
1.4 Could I have the bill, please.
1.4 Could we order, please.
3.2 I don't like ... very much.
3.12 What would you like?
6.2 How are you? (etc.)
6.8 I hope you enjoyed/liked ...

EXPRESSIONS WITH DISCOURSE FUNCTION

A: Hello, B, how are you?
B: Fine/very well, thanks. And you?
(phatic communion - ritual enquiry about health when people have not met recently - basic opening to a conversation)

you know (cajoler, cf. EDMONSON and HOUSE, 1981:75-6)

Er (filling pause for thought)

Ah! (signalling non-linguistic event important enough to justify breaking the turn-taking rule/interrupting speech partner/changing the subject suddenly)

NATIVE SPEAKER SUGGESTIONS

I'd rather have for I'd prefer (changed)

AMERICAN COMMENTS

"steak and kidney pie not normal fare in US" (omitted as too specialized)

"What is an 'ordinary' potato?" (changed to boiled - one British NS also worried by 'ordinary' potatoes)
cash register for cash desk

chips is BE only in this sense except in the case of fish an
usual AE equivalent french fries ch

cheese and crackers for cheese and biscuits

CHANGES/ADDITIONS

+ A: Hello, B, how are you? You can pay for Pay
B: Fine/very well, thanks. And you?
A: Not too bad, you know.

+ It's self-service here. The trays are over there.

17 IN A RESTAURANT/SNACK BAR

EXPERT COMMENTS

AB

- A is a middle-aged man "irrelevant, surely?"
  (Not too bad, you know considered unlikely for a young speaker)
- I have to be careful
  Suggested that even boiled potatoes would be unsuitable for someone who had to be careful

? AB queries the use of waitress in connection with a self-service restaurant, and also whether there would usually be menus on the tables.
(no other NS judge worried on this score)

* + I think I'll have ---, or something like that for I think I'll have ---. (or something added)

GC

* + cup of coffee/tea for coffee/tea (both forms included)

EO

* + "The posher hostelries of Worcs all talk about 'puddings'."
(pudding added as alternative to dessert)

GERMAN TEACHER COMMENTS

R

G There you are felt to be unnecessary as here you are is also included (dialogue 5) (changed - difference very difficult to explain to a German class)

G by the door difficult for German learners (changed to near)

(A is an English travel agent. B needs to travel home to Germany earlier than planned.)

B: I'd like to change this booking/reservation, please.

A: Can I see the tickets, please.
Do you still want to === ?

B: Could I book on the hovercraft instead?

A: I think so. When do you want to go?

B: Tomorrow morning, if possible.

A: I'll have to check. Just a moment, please.
Yes, there are still some places/seats.
It's a bit more expensive, I'm afraid.

B: That's all right. Will I get my money back on the old tickets?

A: Most of it. I'll sign the tickets for you, then you have to send them back to X. I'll give you the address.

go by train and ship
take the car ferry

(X - name of ferry company)

ALTERNATIVE

(A is an airline receptionist. B is a passenger.)

B: Was there an announcement about --- Flight ---?

A: Yes, there's a delay, I'm afraid.

B: Do you know how long the delay will be?

G A: At least two hours,
I'm afraid.

B: Oh well, it could be worse, I suppose.
I'll go and have something to eat.

(name of airline)
(number up to 1000)

WORD FIELDS

airport etc. charter flight
desk gate plane it's been
* cancelled to check in to fly
to hire a car

names of airlines selection

numbers above 20
as separate lexical items:
hundred thousand million

COLLOCATIONS

to change a booking/reservation
Do you (still) want to ...
to go by car/ship/train
... instead
When do you want to go?
tomorrow morning/afternoon/evening/night
if possible
I'll have to check
to get one's money back
most of it

Was there an announcement about ...
at least
It could be worse
to go and do s.th
something to eat/drink
it's been cancelled
to check in
to hire a car

SPEECH FUNCTIONS

1.4 When do you want to go?
1.7 Could I ... instead?
2.4 Do you know how long (the delay) will be?
5.1 I'd like to change this booking/reservation, please.

EXPRESSIONS WITH DISCOURSE FUNCTION

Oh well (accepting a situation etc. which the speech partners cannot change with a good grace/resignation)

NATIVE SPEAKER SUGGESTIONS

Yes, there are still some places/seats replaces ...free places which worried several NS.

AMERICAN COMMENTS

reservation preferred to booking (added)
I think so preferred to I expect so (changed)
a few seats available preferred to some free places (see above)

CHANGES/ADDITIONS

It will probably be at least two hours for At least two hours, they said (probably a desirable addition, they said questionable in this context - modified again as a result of German teacher comments, see below)

18 TRAVEL 1 - AT THE TRAVEL AGENCY/AIRPORT

EXPERT COMMENTS

GC

\+ seats free

(free controversial in this context - see native speaker comments on previous page)

* + It's been cancelled

(added to the word field airport etc.)

GERMAN TEACHER COMMENTS

R

suggests that B would hand over his tickets immediately (it was assumed that he has some kind of envelope with the tickets in it in his hand, and holds it out/up during his first turn)

G It will probably be regarded as very formal (omitted - the useful word probably also occurs in 26)

(A is a ship's officer. B is crossing the Channel by ship for the first time.)

B: Excuse me, please. Where can I ===?

A: You're on the wrong deck. The office is up the stairs over there.

B: Thank you. I'm looking for ---, too.

A: That's along there. It won't be open for a while, I'm afraid.

B: I'll look for the office first, then. Do you check passports on the ship?

A: No, they do that in ---.

B: Sorry to bother you.

A: That's all right. I hope you enjoy your trip.

B: Thank you. It's been very interesting so far.

change some money
get a boarding/ landing card
book a cabin

the (duty-free) shop
the cafeteria
the bar

(°British channel port)

ALTERNATIVE

(A is a customs officer. B as above. S/he goes into the customs hall through the GOODS TO DECLARE entrance.)

A: Did you buy too much/many --- on the ship?

B: No, I just bought one °bottle of whisky.

A: So you could have gone out the other way, then.

B: I've got two bottles of wine with me - from home. They're for friends in England.

A: Let's have a look. Yes, all right. You can put them away again. There's nothing to pay.

B: Thank you. That's great!

°cigarettes
wine
whisk(e)y

get them out

WORD FIELDS

facilities on a ship

British and continental channel ports selection

goods subject to duty

containers and weights

box can packet tin

a kilo (of) (half) a pound of

COLLOCATIONS

to cross the Channel
Where can I
the wrong ...
up the stairs
I'm looking for ...
... first, then
Sorry to bother you
That's all right
I hope you enjoy your trip
It's (been) very interesting (so far)
So ...
(So) you could have ... then
(to go out) the other way
from home
Let's have a look
(There's) nothing to pay
That's great!

SPEECH FUNCTIONS

1.2 (No,) they do that in ...
1.4 Do you (check passports)(on the ship)?
3.4 That's great!
4.1 Sorry to bother you.
4.2 That's all right.

EXPRESSIONS WITH DISCOURSE FUNCTION

A: I hope you enjoy your trip.
B: Thank you. It's been very interesting so far.
(phatic communion as closing section, cf. SCHEGLOFF and SACHS, 1973)

NATIVE SPEAKER SUGGESTIONS

see below

AMERICAN COMMENTS

Slight concern was expressed by two British native speakers and both American native speakers over various parts of You're on the wrong deck. The office is up the stairs over there. (no change)

CHANGES/ADDITIONS

So added to You could have gone out ...

19 TRAVEL 2 - SHIP AND CUSTOMS

EXPERT COMMENTS

AS

? "I'm sure there's another word for (stairs) on a ship."
(not relevant at this level - no suggestion as to what word might be in any case)

GC

+ a limit, to declare
(too specialized for productive vocabulary at this level, but speed limit occurs in dialogue 31)

GERMAN TEACHER COMMENTS

R

Sorry to bother you likely to be seen as ironic by German learners (a safe chunk for German native speakers to use as a filler for the appropriate slot - emphatic intonation needed to make it ironic in English)

Did you buy too much/many ... regarded as unlikely, because this is a "reine Vermutung" on the part of the customs officer (intended as a cheerful opening remark - the choice is more or less limited to the items included in the box for most people)

(A is a ticket clerk. B wants to travel from one English city to another.)

B: A ticket to ---, please.

(name of English city)

A: Single or return?

B: Single, please. When is the next train?

A: 10.50 - or there's an Inter-City at 11.10. Do you want to go on that? It's faster.

slower

B: Can I go second class on an Inter-City?

first class

A: Yes, of course.

B: Do I have to change?

A: No, it's a through train.

B: I think I'll go on the Inter-City, then. Which platform is it, please?

A: Platform eight. Just a second, you haven't paid yet! That's six pounds ninety-five.

ALTERNATIVE

(A is a bus inspector. B is a visitor to an English town.)

B: Excuse me, please. Where can I get a bus to X? I've been here since half past three, and I haven't seen one yet.

(X - name of a road or part of a town or city)

A: You want a 27. The stop is over there on the left. Get off at Y.

(Y - stop near X)
get on

B: When is the next bus, please?

A: ===.

It should be here any minute/in about ten minutes
I'm afraid there's (half) an hour to wait

B: I see. Thank you.

WORD FIELDS

train etc. underground tram

COLLOCATIONS

A ticket to ..., please
Single or return?
to go on (the Inter-City)
Do I have to (change)?
a through train
Which ... is it, please?
... haven't/hasn't ... yet
Where can I get ...?
I've been here since ...
You want a ...
It should be here any minute/ in about ...
There's ... to wait

SPEECH FUNCTIONS

1.1 You want a ...
1.4 When is the next (train)?
1.4 Which ... is it, please?
1.4 Where can I get ...?
1.4 When is ..., please?
1.7 Can I ...?
1.7 Yes, you can/no, you can't
2.11 Do I have to (change)?
3.12 Do you want to ...?
5.3 Get off/on at ...

EXPRESSIONS WITH DISCOURSE FUNCTION

Nothing new

NATIVE SPEAKER SUGGESTIONS

None

AMERICAN COMMENTS

"Single or return in AE is generally one-way or round-trip."
subway for underground
streetcar for tram (tram now historical in BE - included because there are trams in Germany)

CHANGES/ADDITIONS

+ B: Do I have to change?
A: No, it's a through train.
B: I think I'll go on the Inter-City, then.

+ I've been here since half past three, and I haven't seen one yet.

+ Get off at ...
I see. Thank you. for Thank you.

20 TRAVEL 3 - TRAIN AND BUS

EXPERT COMMENTS

GC

\+ connection
(too specialised for productive vocabulary at this level - concept could be dealt with in simple terms)

EO

* - "'It's a bit more expensive" when following an allusion to 2nd class seems a non sequitur."
(similar point made by GC)

GERMAN TEACHER COMMENTS

B

must I change preferred to do I have to change as simpler and closer to German equivalent (must included only in a small number of collocations on principle, because of its general unsuitability for NNS use (see SPEIGHT, 1973a, 92))

R

G reason felt to be missing for the question do you want to go on that (It's faster added)

G As B's question about travelling second class on an Inter-City is more in the nature of checking something she is probably fairly sure about, and as there is nothing new about second class Inter-City travel, the reply Yes, you can is seen as not very appropriate. (changed to Yes, of course)

In Germany the passenger would not get his ticket until he had placed his money in the "Zahlschale" (a Landeskunde point)

VARIATIONS

(A is a taxi driver. B is a woman visitor to London.)

B: X, please. How long will it take to get there? I'm in a hurry.

(X - name of London station)

A: About half an hour, I should think.

B: Oh dear! My train leaves in half an hour. I'll miss it.

A: Don't worry. I'll see what I can do. I can't promise, of course. Let's hope there isn't too much traffic.

(later)

A: There you are, X Station. If you hurry, you'll still catch your train.

B: Thank you. How much is it, please?

* A: Three pounds sixty.

B: Here's four pounds. Keep the change.

ALTERNATIVE

(A is an English driver. B is on a hitch-hiking holiday. He is waiting at the side of a main road north of London.)

A: Where are you heading for?

B: Scotland.

A: I'm on my way to Y. I can take you there if you like.

(Y - name of city in the north of England)

B: That's fine. Thank you.

A: Jump/get in, then. You can put your rucksack in the back.

get out(of)

(later)

Have you come far today?

B: I left Z at eight this morning.

(Z - name of English channel port)

A: You're doing quite well, then. We should be in Y by about five o'clock.

WORD FIELDS

London stations selection

hitch-hiking etc.
to give s.o. a lift

parts of the British Isles

Wales (Northern) Ireland

American states selection

COLLOCATIONS

How long ...
to be in a hurry
about ... I should think
Oh dear!
Don't worry.
I'll see what I can do
I can't promise
Keep the change
Where are you heading for?
I'm on my/the way to ...
to take s.o. somewhere
(That's) fine
Have you come far today?
to do (quite) well
We should be in .../there by ...
to give s.o. a lift

SPEECH FUNCTIONS

1.4 How long will it take (to get there)?
1.4 Where are you heading for?
1.7 About ..., I should think.
1.7 We should be in .../there by (about) ...
2.9 I can't promise.
3.4 (That's) fine.
3.16 Don't worry.
5.3 Jump/get in, then.

EXPRESSIONS WITH DISCOURSE FUNCTION

Oh dear! (exclamation expressing emotional state as reaction to speech partner's previous remark, cf. EDMONSON AND HOUSE, 1981: 72-3)
A: Have you come far today?
B: I left ... at ... this morning.
A: You're doing quite well, then.
(phatic communion as an opening, cf. SCHEGLOFF, 1972)

NATIVE SPEAKER SUGGESTIONS

None

AMERICAN COMMENTS

"Would a male say 'Oh dear!' and if so, what age? Not 15?"
(stage directions amended to read woman visitor)
"I think most American would drop the 'for' in 'Where are you heading for'."
backpack (large) or knapsack (smaller) for rucksack

CHANGES/ADDITIONS

taxi-driver's Where to, please? omitted as too specialized
+ I'm in rather a hurry. (rather omitted as a result of a German teacher comment - see below)

21 TRAVEL 4 - TAXI AND HITCH-HIKING

EXPERT COMMENTS

GC

\+ How far are you going? (all elements included)

EO

* ? "You really will have to double or treble that fare and certainly the tip, what with reckless driving!"

GERMAN TEACHER COMMENTS

B

G that far regarded as difficult. I can take you there suggested as an easier alternative (adopted)

R

G not happy with rather in I'm in rather a hurry (omitted - better context for rather in 11)

'J

You're doing quite well felt to lack a German equivalent (but this useful general comment can cover a number of German expressions in a variety of situations - good progress on the piano/guitar, in school etc. - retained)

SW

heading for regarded as difficult

(useful both in "asking the way" situations and here - retained)

(A is a pump attendant at a filling station/(motorway) service area. B is a German motorist.)

A: Good morning. Two or four star?

B: Two star, please.

A: Shall I fill it up for you?

B: ===.

A: Right. That's £7. Shall I check the oil and water for you?

B: ===.

A: Cash or credit card?

B: Cash, please.

A: I think everything should be all right now. Have a good trip.

B: Oh, I've just remembered. I don't know the word for this thing. It needs some ·ater.

A: ·he (screenwasher), you mean. I'll fill it up for you.

Yes, please
Six gallons, please
seven pounds worth, please
30 litres, please

Yes, please
No, thank you, I checked them this morning
No thanks, but could you have a look at the tyres for me, please, I think I need some air

to forget

ALTERNATIVE

B: I don't need petrol. There's something wrong with my car.

A: What's the trouble? G

B: ===.

A: Let's have a look. ===.

B: Can you repair/fix it for me? G

A: Well, we're very busy, but I think we can manage it - if we've got the right parts!

B: When will it be ready?

A: Oh, in an hour or so, I expect.

diesel

There's a funny noise/smell
It's not running properly
The brakes/lights aren't working properly

(zero)
I expect it's the plugs/the exhaust/some dirt in the petrol/the fan belt/the battery

WORD FIELDS

car etc. engine spare (wheel)
to drive a car to ride a motor cycle it won't go
to have a flat tyre
to change a/the wheel
to be locked

COLLOCATIONS

to fill it/s.th up
... worth
Right.
Shall I check the ...
Could you ... for me, please
I think I need ...
(I think) everything should be all right (now)
(Oh,) I've just remembered
I don't know the word for this thing
The ..., you mean/you mean the ...
There's something wrong with ...
It won't go
(not) to run/go/work (properly)
I expect it's ...
I think we can manage it
(an hour) or so

SPEECH FUNCTIONS

1.4 When will it be ready?
1.7 I think we can (...), if ...
1.7 (Oh,) in an hour or so, I expect.
2.5 Shall I (fill it up/check ...)?
2.8 Can you repair it for me?
2.10 (I think) I need ...
2.10 I don't need ...
5.1 Could you ... for me, please.
5.8 I don't know the word for this thing.
5.8 The ..., you mean.

EXPRESSIONS WITH DISCOURSE FUNCTION

I think everything should be all right now. (optimistic general statement typical of closing exchange)
Oh, I've just remembered. (introducing a new topic after the exchange has ended)

NATIVE SPEAKER SUGGESTIONS

None

AMERICAN COMMENTS

regular for two star
super (sometimes ethyl) for four star
(windshield for (wind)screen - windshield washer/screenwasher not included as lexical item)
muffler for silencer (changed to exhaust)
gas(oline) for petrol
to change the tire for to change the wheel ("unless the metal part is specifically meant")

CHANGES/ADDITIONS

+ B: Can you repair it for me?
A: Well, we're very busy, but I think we can manage it - if we've got the parts.
B: When will it be ready?
A: Oh, in an hour or so, I expect.

22 AT THE FILLING STATION

EXPERT COMMENTS

GC

\+ garage = filling station
(filling station chosen as acceptable to BE and AE native speakers)

\+ question from B about the number of litres in a gallon
(This is Landeskunde - need not be covered productively)

* + A: Cash or credit card?
B: Cash, please.

* + fan belt
(common enough cause of trouble to be included)

ED

\- "Gallons should have disappeared in a year or so at filling stations." (omission not yet justifiable)

GERMAN TEACHER COMMENTS

R

There's something wrong with my car only appropriate if the driver doesn't know exactly what the trouble is (useful general opening remark - could be used if the driver does know what is wrong, too - retained)

G It won't go "Wie ist er bis zur Tankstelle gekommen?" (It won't go omitted from text and added to word field car etc.)

G I'll change ... does not fit before the question Can you repair it for me (to change a/the wheel added to the word field car etc. instead and, from the box above, to have a flat tyre)

W

Hauptschüler unlikely to have credit cards
(but they may very well need them as adults, and are sure to hear and see the term in English-speaking countries and elsewhere - retained)

(A is a shop assistant. B is a visitor from Germany.)

A: Can I help you?

B: I'm looking for a present/a souvenir.

A: For an adult?

B: Yes. Something made of leather, perhaps. Can you show me some handbags?

A: How about one of these?

B: Is this one real leather?

A: No, it's plastic - leather's more expensive.

B: It's not quite what I wanted. What do you call these, please?

A: You mean the ---?

B: Yes. Oh, that one's nice. How much is it, please?

A: £2.50.

B: I'll take it.

A: Shall I wrap it for you?

B: Yes, please.

A: Did you want anything else?

B: Do you sell ---/---?

A: ===.

child

ashtrays
dolls
glasses
posters
vases

books
magazines
(news)papers
pens
postcards
writing paper

chocolate(s)
sweets

Yes, over there
No, you'd better try the supermarket/ paper shop/chemist's

ALTERNATIVE

B: I need a film for my camera.

A: What size did you want?

B: ---, please.

A: For colour prints or slides?

B: Colour prints, please.

A: That's £1.50. Did you want anything else?

B: Do you sell ---?

a cassette
a film for a pocket camera

aspirins
(face) cream
make-up
paper handkerchiefs
shampoo
shaving stuff
soap
sun oil
toothbrushes
toothpaste

WORD FIELDS

materials china glass gold metal silver (stainless) steel wood

souvenirs

stationery etc. envelope page pencil to draw

confectionery

* photography flash bulb to take a photo

chemist's brush comb

23 SHOPPING - A PRESENT OR A FILM

COLLOCATIONS

Can I help you?
for a(n) adult?
(something) made of ...
..., perhaps?
Can you show me some ...
(Oh,) this/that one ('s nice)
It's not quite what I wanted
What do you call these, please?
anything/something else
Did you want anything else?
Do you sell ...?
You'd better (try) ...
What size did you want?
to take a photo

SPEECH FUNCTIONS

1.4 Do you sell ...?
2.5 Shall I wrap it for you?
2.10 What size did you want?
3.1 (Oh,) that one's nice.
3.12 Did you want anything else?
5.4 Can I help you?
5.5 Can you show me (some) ...?
5.8 What do you call these, please?

EXPRESSIONS WITH DISCOURSE FUNCTION

It's not quite what I wanted. (ritualized polite refusal to buy something)

NATIVE SPEAKER SUGGESTIONS

None

AMERICAN COMMENTS

clerk or salesperson for shop assistant (applies only to stage directions - salesperson included in 9)
film without article in AE ("a film would be ... a movie")

"Don't recall ever hearing 'paper handkerchiefs' in America. Sometimes they are called tissues but most commonly 'Kleenex'."

CHANGES/ADDITIONS

+ Can you show me some handbags.
+ A: Shall I wrap it for you?
B: Yes, please.

23 SHOPPING - A PRESENT OR A FILM

EXPERT COMMENTS

GC

\+ "some way of referring to local products"
(the word souvenir could imply this, or B could point to something suitable)

* + flash bulbs (may become unnecessary in a few years)

? do you want for did you want (did you want retained as generally more polite in service situations. See also my comments on dialogue 24, AB's comments on dialogue 26, and B's comments below) (3 examples here)

GERMAN TEACHER COMMENTS

B

"Das 'past tense' in einer äußerst höflichen Frage ('Was there anything else? he asked gently, in a parody of chauffeurly deference.' (Zitat aus Hurry on Down von John Wain)) ist im Deutschen viel seltener als im Englischen und daher fällt sein aktiver Gebrauch schwer. Die dem deutschen Denkmuster entsprechende Struktur 'would you like anything else' würde sicher nicht 'cause offence'. Das Lernziel, äusserst höflich und ehrerbietig zu fragen, scheint mir für einen Ausländer in England nicht nötig zu sein, es sei denn, er wolle dort einen Dienstleistungsbetrieb gründen."

(This is something of a crux. Some commentators, both English and German, are worried by this use of the past tense, others do not regard it as in any way extreme or difficult. It is retained for three main reasons: 1)want in the present tense is definitely rude in many situations, 2)politeness is of overriding importance in human communication (see 4.5.3), and 3)many learners are likely to find themselves using English in service situations in their own country or a "third" country at some time or another.)

R

for my camera "klingt irgendwie überflüssig" - R would have expected for this camera (it was assumed that the camera was not in sight at the moment of speaking - no change)

S

one's - short form regarded as difficult here (no change)

BR

worried by adult. B would prefer grown-up, R a choice of terms (grown-up essentially a child's word, boy, girl, teenager, (young) man/woman and other options available in the dialogues)

(A is a shop assistant. B is a German visitor.)

A: Good morning.

B: Good morning. I'm looking for a ---.

c
blouse
pullover
T-shirt

A: What size did you want?

B: My German size is ---.

small
medium
large
(number)

A: What colour would you like?

B: I was thinking of ---.

(colour)

A: With or without a pattern/design?

B: I'd like ===.

a plain one
one with a pattern/ design

A: How about this one? It's in the sale.

large
small
light
dark

B: It's a bit too ---.

A: Well, how about this one?

B: Oh yes. That looks nice. Could I try it on, please?

A: Yes, of course. Over there.

ALTERNATIVE

B: I bought this dress/jacket here the other day. I was so disappointed when I opened the bag.

pleased

A: Let me have a look. What's the matter?

a hole in it
a mark on the front/back

B: You see. It's got ===.

A: Have you got the receipt?

B: Yes. Here it is.

A: Would you like another one instead?

Yes, please.
I think I'd rather have something else

B: ===.

WORD FIELDS **clothes**

boots (rain)coat gymshoes hat jeans nightdress pyjamas shirt shoes shorts skirt (pair of) socks suit swimming stuff tights trousers underwear

to do s.th up to undo s.th

to get (un)dressed
to put s.th on to take s.th off
to wear

shopping to choose s.th

sizes

COLLOCATIONS

My German size is ...
What colour would you like/is it?
I was thinking of ...
with or without ...
How about this one?
in the/for sale
(It's) a bit too ...
That looks nice
Could I try it on, please
the other day
What's the matter?
It's got/there's a hole in it/
a mark on it/the front/the back
another one (instead)

SPEECH FUNCTIONS

1.4 What's the matter?
2.12 Could I try it on, please?
3.1 That looks nice.
3.5 It's got/there's a hole in it.(+ other example)
3.6 I was so disappointed (when ...).
3.7 What colour would you like?
3.7 I was thinking of (green).
3.7 With or without ...
3.7 I'd like (a plain one/one with a pattern/design).
3.11 I'd like ...
5.6 How about this one?

EXPRESSIONS WITH DISCOURSE FUNCTION

I was so disappointed when ... (pre-complaint with similar function to pre-request, see examples in 5 and 30)

NATIVE SPEAKER SUGGESTIONS

I'd like for I'd prefer (changed)
I'd rather have for I'd prefer (changed)

AMERICAN COMMENTS

angry or annoyed for disappointed (may reflect US consumer attitudes)

Would you like to exchange it for another one or would you prefer a cash refund for Would you like another one instead

(to get one's money back (18) could be used here)

"Pants is used as well as trousers but pants much more common than trousers."

CHANGES/ADDITIONS

What colour would you like for Any special colour
(too specialized, special covered in 7)

I bought this ... here the other day for I'm afraid there's something wrong with this ... (the other day a desirable addition, I'm afraid covered in 2, there's something wrong with in 22)

24 SHOPPING FOR CLOTHES - A COMPLAINT

EXPERT COMMENTS

AB

? swimming things for swimming stuff
(no one else worried by this informal but useful form)

+ What size do you take as an alternative to What size did you want (meaning slightly different - original, in which shop assistant is not sure if customer wants something for him/herself at first, has been retained. No one objected to did you want here, presumably because present tense would sound very abrupt in this context)

GERMAN TEACHER COMMENTS

B

What size did you want (see comments on 23)

(A is a bank clerk. B is a visitor from Germany.)

B: Could I ===, please.

A: Yes, of course. Just a moment, please.
(later)
How would you like the money?

B: ===.

A: There you are. Anything else?

B: ===?

G

- cash a Traveller's Cheque/Eurocheque
- change this 50/100 mark note, please.

- In pound notes, please
- In five/ten pound notes, please
- One pound in change, the rest in notes, please

- Could you tell me the exchange rate, please
- Can I pay with a Eurocheque in the shops, please

ALTERNATIVE

(A is a post office clerk. B is a visitor from Germany.)

B: How much is a --- to Germany, please?

A: X. How many stamps did you want?

B: Six, please.

A: That's Y. Anything else?

B: ===?

A: You'll have to ask at the end there.

B: Right, thank you.

- letter
- postcard

(X = sum of money in p.)

(Y = sum of money)

- How long will a postcard/letter to Germany take, please
- Can I telephone Germany from here
- Have you got a London telephone book

beginning

WORD FIELDS

bank and money pfennig(s)
cent dollar bank/cheque/credit
(not) to have enough money card

post office parcel post code
telegram to post s.th

COLLOCATIONS

Could I cash a Traveller's Cheque/Eurocheque, please
How would you like (the money)
In (five pound notes), please
(one pound) in change
Could you tell me (the exchange rate), please
to pay (for s.th) with a cheque
(How much is) a letter/postcard to Germany
You'll have to ask ...
at the beginning/end
(not) to have enough money

SPEECH FUNCTIONS

1.4 Could you tell me ...
1.4 How many ... did you want?
1.7 Could I (cash a cheque), please.
2.10 You'll have to (ask) ...
3.7 How would you like (the money)?

EXPRESSIONS WITH DISCOURSE FUNCTION

Nothing new

NATIVE SPEAKER SUGGESTIONS

How would you like the money for ... it (changed)

AMERICAN COMMENTS

bills for notes
"They won't accept EC's in N. America, but seem to treat them as funnymoney."

CHANGES/ADDITIONS

+ A: You'll have to ask at the end there.
B: Right. Thank you.

25 BANK AND POST OFFICE

EXPERT COMMENTS

None

GERMAN TEACHER COMMENTS

R

G suggests omitting for things from Can I pay for things with a Eurocheque, and shortening when I go shopping to in shops (suggestions adopted)

How many stamps ... regarded as an unlikely question (it was assumed that B has a pile of letters/postcards with him, which would make this question quite natural)

(A is a policeman. B is a German visitor.)

A: Could I have your name and address, please.

B: ===. Do you want my home address?

A: No, your address in this country, please.

B: Well, I'm staying at/in X ===.

A: You'd better give me your home address, then.

B: ===.

A: Can you spell that, please.

B: ===.

A: How do you pronounce this word?

B: ===.

A: And I need your date of birth, please.

B: ===.

A: Now, you were (tele)phoning, you say.

B: Yes, and I left my --- in the telephone box. I went back five minutes later, but it wasn't there. I suppose it's been stolen.

A: Was there a lot of money in it?

B: About £20 - and my driving licence.

A: Well, we'll try to find it, of course. You could be lucky, but you'll probably never see it again.

(gives name and spells it)

(X - name of hotel or town)

till the 20th

at the moment, but I'm leaving tomorrow

(gives German address)

(spells above address)

(repeats a word from address slowly)

(gives date of birth in three figures, e.g. 10.3.60)

handbag
purse
wallet

ALTERNATIVE

(an accident)

A: Could I see your licence and insurance, please.

B: Yes, of course. Here you are.

A: Now you were waiting at the junction, you said. And what happened after that?

B: The other car ===.

A: I see. The other driver says ===.

B: ===

ran into the back of my car
didn't stop
started to overtake

you stopped very suddenly
your brake lights/ indicators weren't working

That's not true!
I'm afraid that's right.

WORD FIELDS

English spelling

expressing one's date of birth

containers for money etc.

car accident police car
police station
to be (badly) damaged
to be (badly) injured
to call an ambulance/the police
car movement to go back/forward
sequence of actions first etc.
next then at last

COLLOCATIONS

home address
till (the 20th)
Can you spell that, please
How do you pronounce this word?
date of birth
to say/said (+ noun clause)
Now ...(you say/said)
to try to (find) s.th

You could be lucky, (but ...)
after that
to run into the back of s.th
to start to do s.th
That's (not) true
(I'm)afraid that's true
to be (badly) damaged/injured
to call an ambulance/the police
at last

SPEECH FUNCTIONS

2.2 That's not true!
2.2 I'm afraid that's right.
2.15 (Now)(you were telephoning), you say.
5.1 Could I see your licence and insurance, please.
5.8 Can you spell that, please.
5.8 How do you pronounce this word?

EXPRESSIONS WITH DISCOURSE FUNCTION

Now, ... (starter, cf. EDMONSON and HOUSE, 1981:79-81)

NATIVE SPEAKER SUGGESTIONS

making a phone call for telephoning (no change as telephoning is simpler, and seven out of ten British NS accepted it)

Four British NS were unhappy with I'm afraid you'll never see it again, but as they suggested three different versions between them, no change.

AMERICAN COMMENTS

"Making a phone call or just phoning sound better to me than telephoning."(phoning given as optional form of telephoning)

"Telephone box sounds strange. I think most Americans would say phone booth or public phone."

turn signals or blinkers more common than indicators

CHANGES/ADDITIONS

+ A: Could I see your licence and insurance, please.
B: Yes, of course. Here you are.
after that for next (next time) covered in 3)

26 THE POLICE

EXPERT COMMENTS

AB

* ? Do you want for did you want "I can imagine the did in a shop/bank context, but wouldn't use it myself."

EO

* ? you'll probably never see it again for I'm afraid you'll never see it again (this version adopted - see native speaker suggestions on the previous page)

GERMAN TEACHER COMMENTS

None

(A is telephoning/ringing up his/her friend B. The two friends have not met for some time. C is a "wrong number".)

C: Hello. X three one double-oh four. C speaking. (X - name of English town)

A: Oh, sorry. I think I've dialled the wrong number. (C - gives first and second name)

C: Who did you want to speak to?

A: B. (B's first and second name)

C: This is the right number, but s/he doesn't live here any more.

A: Have you got his/her new telephone number?

C: Yes, I have. It's four seven six nine three.

A: Is it the same code?

C: Oh yes. S/he still lives in X. (X - town as above)

A: Sorry to bother you.

C: That's all right. Goodbye.

A: Goodbye.

ALTERNATIVE

B: Hello. X three one double-oh four. B speaking. (X - town as above)

A: Hello B, this is A. (B and A - first names)

B: What a nice surprise. Where are you speaking from?

A: I've just arrived at the station. Are the children there?

B: No, they're away/out at the moment. in
You'll see them this evening.
Shall I come and get you/pick you up?

A: No, don't bother. I'll take a taxi.

RD FIELDS

lephoning etc. to leave/take

message to leave a note (for s.o.)

pressing a telephone number

COLLOCATIONS

... speaking
I think I've ...
to dial a/the wrong number
What a (nice surprise)
Where are you speaking from?
I've just arrived (at/in ...)
to be/go away
to be in/out
to come and get/pick up s.o./s.th
(Please) don't bother
to take a taxi
to leave/take a message
to leave a note (for s.o.)

SPEECH FUNCTIONS

1.4 Who do/did you want to speak to?
1.4 Where are you speaking from?
2.15 Is it (the same code)?
3.1 What a nice surprise!
5.4 Shall I come and get you/pick you up?
5.4 (Please) don't bother.

EXPRESSIONS WITH DISCOURSE FUNCTION

Nothing new

NATIVE SPEAKER SUGGESTIONS

None

AMERICAN COMMENTS

This was the only case where a whole section of dialogue was felt to be inappropriate in an American setting. Suggested AE alternative:

C: Hello.
A: Hello, B? This is A.
C: I'm sorry, but I think you've dialled the wrong number.
A: Is this 31004?
C: Yes it is.
A: Is this the B residence? (B's second name)
C: No, they don't live here any more.

other comments:

to phone/call s.o. for to ring s.o. up

I think I must have for I expect

area code for code

"Private individuals do not identify themselves when answering the phone (the caller must do that first). Number and name sound business to me or even military. Women do not like to give their names (or should not) as so-called crank calls are not unknown and name provides address through phone book. It would be very unusual for the new resident to know the new phone number of the old resident."

CHANGES/ADDITIONS

What a nice surprise for That's marvellous (surprise a desirable addition)

+ A: Are the children there?
B: No, they're away/out at the moment.
You'll see them this evening.

27 TELEPHONING

EXPERT COMMENTS

AB

- Hello.
- C speaking

(agrees with AE comments on giving name over the telephone - view not shared by other British NS judges) (2 examples)

* ? I think I've for I expect I've

(see also the American comments on the previous page)

? Comment on I've just arrived at the station. Are the children there: "rather a jump"

(visitors, particularly non-teenage visitors, often interested in children)

GERMAN TEACHER COMMENTS

B

C here preferred to C speaking (no change)

R

"Würde man auch die Stadt angeben? Bei uns: Name oder Nummer." (This is the way people are officially asked to answer the phone in England, and many follow the guidelines. Obviously there are variations.)

R considers it unlikely that the new occupant would have the phone number of his/her predecessor (it was assumed that they got to know one another, and C offered to help B in this way)

(A is a guide. B is a German tourist on a guided tour of an old castle.)

A: Down there on the left, ladies and gentlemen, just past the big tower, you can see the (dungeons).

B: What does "dungeons" mean, please?

A: Sorry?

B: What does "dungeons" mean, please?

A: Oh, that's the place where they (used to) put the prisoners.

B: Could you say that again - a bit slower, please. — faster

A: Don't you speak English?

B: Oh yes. But I'm not very good at it yet.

A: Well, the dungeon is the place where they (used to) put the (prisoners).

B: Oh dear! I don't know what "prisoners" means.

A: (Prisoners) were bad people, okay? People who annoyed the king or queen. Have you got it now?

B: Yes, thank you.

A: Pardon? Speak up a bit, please.

B: I said thank you. I understand it now.

A: Fine. Let's go on, then.

ALTERNATIVE

(A is a native speaker. B is a German visitor.)

B: Can you explain this ---, please. I don't understand it/it's not quite clear.

A: Yes, of course. It means ... . Now you try to explain

B: Well, ...

A: That's very good. ===.

B: What's the word for that thing, please?

A: Oh, that's a ... .

advertisement
bit here
notice
sentence
sign

Don't give up
Go on
Keep going

WORD FIELDS

VIP's president prime minister

written forms article story

language reference

dictionary

28 COMPREHENSION DIFFICULTIES

COLLOCATIONS

a guided tour
just past s.th
What does ... mean, please?
Sorry?
Could you say that again, please?
a bit slower, please
Do/don't you speak English?
the place where
I don't know what ... means
..., okay?
Have you got it now?
Pardon?
(Can/could you) speak up a bit, please
Let's go on, (then)
Can you explain this (...), please
I don't understand (it)
It's not quite clear
Now you (try to) ...
Don't give up
Go on
Keep going
What's the word for this/that (thing), please?

SPEECH FUNCTIONS

1.1 (Oh,) that's a ...
1.4 Do/don't you speak English?
2.16 Sorry?
2.16 ..., okay?
2.16 Have you got it now?
2.16 Pardon?
2.16 (Can/could you) speak up a bit, please.
2.16 I understand (it) now.
2.16 I don't understand (it).
5.3 Now you try to (explain).
5.8 What does ... mean, please?
5.8 (Oh,) that's the place where ...
5.8 Could you say that again.
5.8 I don't know what ... means.
5.8 Can you explain this (...), please.
5.8 It means ...
5.8 What's the word for this/that (thing), please?
6.7 That's very good.

EXPRESSIONS WITH DISCOURSE FUNCTION

a bit slower, please
I'm not very good at (English) yet
(basic handicap signals, cf. BENEKE, 1975:360-361)
Don't give up
Go on
Keep going
(specific encouragement for NNS using his second language - a variant of the go-on referred to in EDMONSON and HOUSE, 1981: 73-4)

NATIVE SPEAKER SUGGESTIONS

None

AMERICAN COMMENTS

"do you understand it now as well as less common have you got it now"

CHANGES/ADDITIONS

+ just past the big tower
A: Don't you speak English?
B: Oh yes, but I'm not very good at it yet.
Well, the dungeon is for It's

+ A: Now you try to explain. B: Well, ... A: That's very good. ===.

28 COMPREHENSION DIFFICULTIES

EXPERT COMMENTS

A8

? Comment on Now you try to explain: "rather didactic"
(A was assumed to be helping B with his/her English)

E0

? Don't you speak English "unconvincing" because B has already spoken some English
(no other judge worried by this - question not intended to be interpreted too strictly)

GERMAN TEACHER COMMENTS

B

What's the meaning of --- suggested as easier than What does --- mean because it avoids the use of to do.
(On the other hand, what's the is a severe pronunciation problem for many students - no change)

R

Now you try to explain felt to be "etwas zu schulmeisterlich"
(see comment above)

(B is staying with an English family. A is his/her host.)

B: I'm terribly sorry. I've made a mess of your round ---.

square
table cloth
carpet

A: That's all right. Please don't worry about it.

B: I'm afraid it's quite serious. I've tried to clean it up, but you can still see a mark.

A: Oh, it's not too bad. I can do something about it later. It's ---, so it should be all right.

°cotton
synthetics
wool

ALTERNATIVE

B: I'm terribly sorry. I've ===.

broken the/your teapot/coffee pot
°damaged this record

A: It doesn't matter. It was an old one/a cheap one anyway.

B: I'd like to buy you a new one.

A: No - that's all right. Let's forget all about it.

WORD FIELDS

kinds of cloth etc. a cloth

damage etc. to be broken

COLLOCATIONS

I'm terribly sorry
to make a mess of s.th
Please don't worry about it
It should be all right
It doesn't matter
It's/it was a(n) (old/cheap) one anyway
Let's forget all about it
to be broken

SPEECH FUNCTIONS

1.6 I've made a mess of ...
1.6 I've broken/damaged ...
2.5 I'd like to buy you a new one.
2.6 Don't be so silly!
4.1 I'm terribly sorry.
4.2 Let's forget all about it.
4.6 It doesn't matter.

EXPRESSIONS WITH DISCOURSE FUNCTION

Please don't worry about it.
Oh, it's not too bad.
It was an old one/a cheap one anyway
(injured party carrying out his/her conversational obligation to reassure the offending party) (This function is separate from simply "granting forgiveness" (4.2 in the list of speech functions. Edmonson and House's category the Forgive blurs this distinction (EDMONSON and HOUSE, 1981:161-162).)

NATIVE SPEAKER SUGGESTIONS

None

AMERICAN COMMENTS

don't be silly preferred to don't be so silly (both versions included)

CHANGES/ADDITIONS

None

29 APOLOGIZING

EXPERT COMMENTS

None

GERMAN TEACHER COMMENTS

R
"Weshalb round table cloth/carpet?
(basic shapes needed as lexical items, and there could easily be items of different shapes in use in the household)

G Don't be (so) silly "Klingt für mich irgendwie frech"
(There is some danger that don't be so silly could be a "natives only" reaction here. Modified as follows:
No - that's all right.
Silly has been added to the word field negative characteristics (32). This dialogue also includes the original opposite for silly: sensible.)

(B is staying with an English family as an au pair. A is his/her host.)

B: Are you using your --- this afternoon?

car
moped
motor cycle

A: No, I don't think so. Why?

B: Do you think I could borrow it?

A: Well, I don't usually lend it to anybody.

B: I'd be very careful with it.

G A: I know B, but accidents can happen. I'd be worried about the insurance. Where do you want to go?

(B's first name)

B: To ---. There's no bus.

A: I could take you there if you like.

(name of town or village)

B: Could you? That would be great. By the way, would you mind if I ===?

had the day/ afternoon off on Wednesday

brought a friend home with me this evening

A: No, of course not. Is it somebody special?

B: ===.

Oh, I'm not meeting anyone. I'd like to go to London
It's someone I met at my English class/ course

ALTERNATIVE

B: could you lend me some tools? I want to repair my old (bi)cycle.

A: Yes, of course. What do you need?

G B: Well, have you got --- and --- ?

a hammer
some pliers
a screwdriver
some spanners

A: Let's go and have a look in the garage.

B: Oh! a button has come off my shirt/blouse. Could I borrow a needle and cotton?

WORD FIELDS

tools etc. (electric) drill saw nail nut screw

parts of clothing

belt pocket zip

sewing etc. (safety) pin, scissors, to knit, knitting

30 BORROWING SOMETHING - ASKING A FAVOUR

COLLOCATIONS

Do you think I could/could I borrow ... ?
Well, I don't usually (lend it to anybody)
I'd be very careful (with it)
I know
Accidents can happen
(to be) worried (about s.th)
There's no (bus)
Would you mind (if ...)
to have a (day/afternoon/week) off
to bring a friend/s.o. home (with one)
somebody/s.o./s.th special
someone I met (at/in ...)
Could you lend me ...

SPEECH FUNCTIONS

2.5 I could (take you there) if you like.
2.11 What do you need?
2.13 Well, I don't usually lend it to anybody.
5.1 Do you think I could/could I borrow ...?
5.1 Would you mind if I ...?
5.1 Could you lend me ...?

EXPRESSIONS WITH DISCOURSE FUNCTION

Are you using your ... this afternoon?
(pre-request, cf. EDMONSON, 1979)
A: Well, I don't usually lend it to anybody.
B: I'd be very careful with it.
A: I know B, but accidents can happen. I'd be worried about the insurance.
(pre-responding exchange in which A delays answering directly because s/he is unwilling to grant B's request, and B, sensing this unwillingness, tries to back up his/her request, cf. EDMONSON and HOUSE, 1981:119-120)
(accidents can happen is an example of "folk wisdom" - a cliché expressing a general truth about life and thus stressing solidarity, see for example ALEXANDER, 1979:187-190)

NATIVE SPEAKER SUGGESTIONS

lend it to anybody for lend it to people (changed)

AMERICAN COMMENTS

anybody for people (see above)
"cycle in AE is motorcycle ... bicycle the other" (both versions included)
spanner BE only, AE equivalent wrench
needle and thread for needle and cotton
"I don't think Americans would abbreviate zipper to zip, at least I've never heard it."

CHANGES/ADDITIONS

+ B: Are you using your ... this afternoon?
A: No, I don't think so. Why?

30 BORROWING SOMETHING - ASKING A FAVOUR

EXPERT COMMENTS

None

GERMAN TEACHER COMMENTS

B

G I know you would seen as "eine typisch englische Erscheinung" which should not be required of German pupils in productive work. (you would omitted)

G I think I could manage with seen as unnecessarily difficult. (replaced by: have you got (the useful verb manage also occurs in 13, 14 and 32))

(A and B are friends. B is English. It's her first visit to Germany. Or vice versa.)

B: Why do so many people === in Germany/England?

drive fast/slowly
live in flats/have their own houses
get up (very) early/late

A: I don't know really. I suppose it's because ===.

there's no speed limit on the autobahn/there's a speed limit on the motorway
houses are so/not so expensive here
work starts early/doesn't start so early here

B: I see. And why don't === ?

A: I suppose it's always been like that. What do you think of our food, by the way?

people wash their cars on Sundays
the pubs stay open longer

* B: Oh, I like it very much. I really love
* ---.

black bread
your cold meats
your sausages
your Schnitzel
fish and chips
(English meals)

can't stand

A: And how about the beer?

B: Well, yours is okay, but I like ours better on the whole.

ALTERNATIVE

A: Do you get on all right with people over here?

B: ===.

nobody/one

Oh yes, everybody/one is very friendly
People are very friendly when you get to know them
Well, I haven't made many friends so far. I think it's easier to make friends at home

A: ===.

That's good
I'm sorry to hear that - but I'm sure you'll get to know more people in a while

WORD FIELDS

German food

COLLOCATIONS

I suppose it's because ...
I (really) love ...
I can't stand ...
(yours is okay, (but ...)
(but) I like (ours) better
on the whole
over here
... when you get to know them
it's easier/harder (to do s.th
to make friends (with s.o.)
I'm sorry to hear that
in a while

SPEECH FUNCTIONS

1.5 Why do/don't (so many) (people) ...
1.5 I suppose it's because ...
3.4 That's good.
3.6 Well, I haven't made many friends so far.
3.7 I like (ours) better (on the whole).
3.15 I'm sorry to hear that.
3.16 I'm sure you'll (get to know more people) in a while.
3.17 What do you think of our (food)?
3.17 I (really) love...

EXPRESSIONS WITH DISCOURSE FUNCTION

Well, yours is okay, but I like ours better on the whole.
(expressing preference for one's own country etc. in a careful, balanced way in order to avoid giving offence)

NATIVE SPEAKER SUGGESTIONS

None

AMERICAN COMMENTS

apartment for flat("although flat is known in say NYC - 'cold-water flat'")
motorway (see notes on 6)
cold cuts for cold meats
to get on (all right) with (see notes on 11)

CHANGES/ADDITIONS

What do you think of our food, by the way for By the way, what do you think of German/English food (neater)
I like ours better for I prefer ours (see notes on 10)

31 DISCUSSING NATIONAL DIFFERENCES

EXPERT COMMENTS

AB

? "(I) don't really agree with this radical elimination (of prefer)" (see the reference page for dialogue 10)

GC

* ? can't stand for hate

EO

* ? Schnitzel for schnitzels

GERMAN TEACHER COMMENTS

S

on the whole felt to be unnecessary
(see the note on this expression in the discourse function section on the previous page)

(B is A's girlfriend. C is a mutual friend.)

A: Look, you said you'd be there at eight.

B: Well, I'm sorry. I couldn't manage it. I couldn't find my car keys.

A: Why didn't you telephone?

B: I didn't think.

A: Can't you be a bit more --- ?

sensible
thoughtful

B: Listen to you! I suppose you're always on time.

(as above)

A: No, I'm not. But I'm a lot more --- than you are.

(as above)

B: That's what you think. Who helped you when you lost === ?

your (sun)glasses
that essay you had to write
that little piece for your camera
your new watch°

A: That was different.

B: That's what you always say. I'm so fed up/ miserable. Sometimes I wish I was dead.

happy alive

A: Come on now, B. Cheer up. It's not as bad as that. I'm very sorry. Is that better?

(B's first name)

ALTERNATIVE

A: And another thing. Did you tell C I was ---?

(C's first name)

lazy mean selfish

B: I just said ===.

you can't get up/ always lie in bed in the morning
you always take the biggest piece of cake
you don't like spending money

A: I think that's really unfair.

B: Oh, do you. And how about the time you told C I was a stupid idiot? I was so ---.

angry annoyed upset

A: That was years ago.

B: I don't care. It was still mean of you. You did it just to annoy me.

WORD FIELDS

valuables jewellery necklace ring

negative characteristics (cf. 10)

mean (= unkind) (un)tidy silly

emotional reactions

to cry to laugh to smile

COLLOCATIONS

You said you'd ...
to be there (at ...)
I couldn't manage it
I didn't think
Can't you be (a bit)(more) ...
Listen to you!
to be on time
(I'm)(a lot) more ... than (you are)
That's what you think
That's/that was different
That's what you always say
to be fed up
I wish (+ noun clause)
I wish I was

Come on now
Cheer up!
It's not as bad as that
Is that better?
And another thing
I just said
to lie/be in bed
to spend money
Oh, (do) you
(How about) the time (when) ...
(That was) years ago
I don't care
It was (very) (mean/nice) of y
to do something to ... s.o./s.

SPEECH FUNCTIONS

1.5 Why didn't you (telephone)?
3.5 Can't you be (a bit)(more) ...
3.16 Come on now, B.
3.16 Cheer up.
3.16 It's not as bad as that.
3.18 I couldn't manage it.
3.18 I couldn't find (my car keys).
3.18 I didn't think.
4.3 (I think) that's really unfair.
4.3 It was (mean) of you.
4.6 I don't care
6.8 (Sometimes) I wish ...

EXPRESSIONS WITH DISCOURSE FUNCTION

Look, ... (Underscorer, cf. EDMONSON and HOUSE, 1981:63-4,76-7)

Listen to you! That's what you think. That was different. That's what you always say. Oh, (do) you.

((angrily) refusing to accept speech partners remarks/viewpoint)

And another thing.

(introducing additional point in the case against speech partner)

NATIVE SPEAKER SUGGESTIONS

I couldn't manage it for I didn't manage it (changed)

miserable for unhappy (changed)

AMERICAN COMMENTS

couldn't manage it or couldn't make it for didn't manage it (see above)

I wish I were preferred to I wish I was

"This dialogue is so sexist it's offensive." (There has to be a reason for the argument.)

CHANGES/ADDITIONS

+ A: That was years ago.

B: I don't care. It was still mean of you.

32 AN ARGUMENT

EXPERT COMMENTS

AB

Comment on title: "Bickering, I'd call it."

* ? Can't you be a bit more ... for I don't know why you can't ...
original felt to be too long (modified)

* ? fed up for miserable
(other NS judges in favour of miserable - but fed up
is very useful too - added)

\- Sometimes I wish I was dead
(possible, admittedly exaggerated reaction. Dead and
alive needed as lexical items.)
AB does not agree that the dialogue is sexist (see AE
comments on the previous page).

GC

\+ considerate (covered by thoughtful at this level)

* + on time (more useful than punctual (see EO's comment)
at this level)

EO

? punctual for sensible

GERMAN TEACHER COMMENTS

B

thoughtful alone preferred, because of the problem
sensible/ "sensibel" (enough difference in meaning
between thoughtful and sensible for it to be worth
including both)

egoistic preferred to selfish, which German children often
pronounce as "Schellfisch" (= haddock). (Egoistic not
a common word in English - selfish retained)

Oh, do you felt to be difficult (included as a relatively
simple way of expressing ironic disapproval)

R

Sometimes I wish I was dead "Klingt sehr hart."
(see comment above)

(B is A's girlfriend.)

A: Hey B, would you like to go out tonight?

B: No thanks. === .

* A: Come on.
I'm sure you'd enjoy yourself.

G B: Where would you like to go?

A: === .

B: I'm sorry, A. I just don't feel like it.

A: Come on!

B: No, not tonight.

A: Well, okay then. How about tomorrow?

(B's first name)

I want to go to
bed early
I don't feel well
I'm too/very tired
I've got a headache
I have to finish ...
write ...
do ...

The Walkers have
invited us
There's a party
at John's
I haven't thought
about it yet
I don't know. Where
would you like
to go?

(A's first name)

ALTERNATIVE

* B: Oh yes. I'd love a night out/I'd love to. Where shall we go?

A: Let's go for a walk === .

B: That's not a night out. I was thinking of something exciting - a pop concert, perhaps.

A: I'm sorry, B. But a walk is free!

B: Let's do both. We can walk into town and then do something interesting. - We could go and see that new film.

in the country/
fields/park/
forest

by the lake/river

(B's first name)

WORD FIELDS

the countryside flat (country)
fresh air hill(y) path steep
valley

33 INVITATIONS

COLLOCATIONS

(not) to feel well
I'm sure you'd (enjoy yourself)
at John's
to (have to) think about s.th
I haven't thought about it yet
I (just) don't feel like it
Well, okay then
a night out

I'd love to
to go for a walk/run/swim
in the (country)
by the (river)
That's not a ...
something exciting/interestin
(Let's do) both
to go and see s.o./s.th

SPEECH FUNCTIONS

1.4 Where shall we go?
2.5 Would you like to (go out tonight)?
2.5 Oh yes. I'd love (a night out).
2.6 I want to go to bed early. (+ other examples)
2.6 I (just) don't feel like it.
3.11 Where would you like to go?
5.1 Come on!
5.6 Let's (go for a walk).
5.6 Let's do both

EXPRESSIONS WITH DISCOURSE FUNCTION

Hey B (attracting a friend's attention)

I'm sure you'd enjoy yourself. (backing up a suggestion/invitation)

Well, okay then. (expressing (resigned) acceptance of speech partner's view, plan etc.)

NATIVE SPEAKER SUGGESTIONS

None

AMERICAN COMMENTS

to go out with me for to come out (changed to to go out)
(come out mainly associated with one child asking another to come out to play)

to go/get to bed early for to have an early night (changed to to go to bed early)

CHANGES/ADDITIONS

+ A: Come on! B: No, not tonight.
+ A: ... But a walk is free!
B: Let's do both. We can walk into town and then do something interesting.

33 INVITATIONS

EXPERT COMMENTS

AB

\- That's not a night out
implies that it is the girl who wants to do expensive things - i.e. the second part of the dialogue is sexist. "The kids nowadays pool their money."
(this view not shared by other BE or AE judges)

GC

* + I'd love to "useful since it doesn't need an object"

? A walk doesn't cost anything preferred to A walk is free
(to cost often used by non-native speakers where to be is more idiomatic, e.g. "How much does it cost?" for "How much is it?")

EO

* - You can do that tomorrow "does not fit 'I don't feel well' etc."

GERMAN TEACHER COMMENTS

B

G Where did you want to go?
(comments as for similar case in 23 - here changed to Where would you like to go.)

at John's felt to be difficult because of the "apostrophe s"
(see related comments on at the chemist's in 16 - no change)

(B is an English businessman. A is the teenage son/daughter of a German acquaintance of B's. One day B rings the bell at A's home.)

A: Hello.

B: Hello. Is your Dad at home?

A: No, he's out at the moment. He's still at work.

B: How about your Mum?

A: She's gone shopping.

B: I see. Oh dear, this is difficult. When does your father get home?

A: At about six, usually.

B: I met your father in London last year. He asked me to come and see him when I was in X. Do you think I could come in and wait for him?

(X - German city)

A: Well, I don't know. I've never seen you before. I'm a bit worried.

B: I rang your father up yesterday. Didn't he say anything?

A: No, I don't think so.

B: I've got an idea. Just a second - look. Your father spent an evening at my home last autumn. My wife took this photo. That's your father, and that's me.

A: Oh yes! That's okay, then. Come in, please. The living room is over here.

B: Oh, it's a very nice room.

A: Sit down, please. Would you like something to drink?

(possible continuations - things to see (1-2)
- the journey to Germany (2)
- school (10)
- family (11)

6.2 List of lexical items (approx. 1500 items)

The numbers refer to the numbers of the dialogues in which the items occur.

Examples are indented. The examples contain no material which is not covered elsewhere in the list.

Explanations are in brackets.

Headings for word fields are underlined.

A

a (n) 1
a (n) 7
  a week, an hour etc. 7
about 2
  about eight 2
about 7
  what was it about 7
  an announcement about 18
abroad 3
accident 2
across 6
adapter 15
address 18
  home address 26
adult 23
advertisement 28
I'm afraid (not) 14
  I'm afraid it's quite serious 29
after (that) 26
afternoon 2
afterwards 17
again 2
ago 3
  years ago 32
ah! 17
air 22
airline 18
airport 6
alive 32
all 2
  we all have to help 11
all right 5
  (neutral opinion 5)
  (agreement 7)
  (polite refusal of help 14)
  (accepting apology 19)
alone 11
along 19
already 2
always 9
ambulance 6
a.m. and p.m. 15
America(n) 2
  American States 21
  (selection)
and 1
angry 32
animal 7
ankle 16
announcement 18
to annoy 11
annoyed 32
another 13
answer 10
to answer 10
any 3
anybody/one 30
any more (TV) 7
  (=any longer)

anything 7
anyway 3
  I'll try there anyway 15
anywhere 10
apple 13
  apple pie 13
argument 32
arm 16
(in the) army 9
to arrive 27
article 28
(just) as .... as 8
ashtray 23
aspirins 23
to ask (s.o. to do s.th.) 3
at 2
  at about eight 2
  at the traffic lights 6
  at school/work 10
at all 15
  nothing at all 15
at last 26
at least 18
atmosphere 3
attractive 12
aunt 11
au pair 30
autobahn 31
autumn 8
away 19
  to put s.th. away 19
  to be/go away 27
awful 1

B

baby 6
back 16 (body)
back 12
  back door 12
  at the back 16
  in the back (of a car) 21
  the back of a car etc. 26
(to go) back 26
bacon and egg(s) 13
bad 1
  not too bad 7
bag 14
ball 8
banana 13
bank 25
bank card 25
bar 2
(wash-) basin 12
bath 12
  to have a bath 15
bathroom 12
BBC 1/2 7
to be 1 (all forms in the tenses covered)
beach 2
bean(s) 17
beautiful 1
because 31
bed 12
bedroom 12
beef 17
beer 4
before 1
  (adv., prep. (time), conj.)
beginning 25
behind 6
belt 30
best 10
better 1
you'd better 23
between 5
big 4
biggest 32
bill 17
(dust)bin 5
bird 7
birthday 10

biscuit 3
(a) bit 3
  this bit here 28
black 12
blanket 15
blouse 24
blue 12
boat 8
boiled 5
  boiled egg 5
  boiled potatoes 17
book 23
to book 15
booking 18
boots 24
was/were born 11
to borrow 5
boss 9
both (things/people) 33
to bother 19
  sorry to bother you 19
  don't bother 27
bottle 19
bottom 16
  at the bottom 16
box 6
boy 6
brake(s) 22
brake lights 26
brandy 4
bread 5
to break 29
  it is broken 29
breakfast 11
bridge 6
to bring 5
  to forget to bring s.th. 5
  to bring s.o. home 30
Britain 1
British 1
brother 11
brown 12
brush 23
building 1
to burn (one's arm etc.) 16
bus 6
bus stop 20
  Bus destinations 20
  (the names of parts of a town or city , road names)
bush 5
businessman/woman 9
busy 22
but 2
butter 5
button 24
to buy 6
by 18
  by car etc. 18
by 21
  by about ten 21
by the way 1

C

cabin 19
cable 5
cafe 2
cafeteria 19
cake 3
  fruit/chocolate cake 19
call 15
to call 23
  what do you call these 23
  to call the police 26
camera 23
  pocket camera 23
camping site 5
can 6
can (of beer) 19
it's been cancelled 18
car 2
  Car 22
  (names of parts and accessories)

caravan 5
(boarding/landing) card 19
I don't care 32
careful 13
careless 13
car ferry 18
car park 6
carpet 12
carrot 17
to carry 14
cash 22
to cash a cheque 25
cash desk 17
cassette 7
(cf. record 7)
(film 23)
castle 1
cat 8
to catch 8
to catch a ball 8
to catch a train 21
cathedral 1
ceiling 12
cellar 12
cent 25
centimetre 6
centre 6
town/city centre 6
chair 12
change 21
keep the change 21
one pound in change 25
to change 18
to change plans/bookings 18
to change money 19
to change trains 20
to change a wheel 22
channel (TV) 7
the Channel 19
Channel ports 19
(selection - English and Continental)
to chat 2
cheap 29
to check 18
to check in 18
cheers! 4
cheese 5
chemist('s) 16
At the chemist's 23
(selection)
(Euro-/Traveller's) Cheque 25
chest 16
chicken 17
child 23
china 23
chips 17
chocolate 23
chocolates 23
to choose 24
Christmas 10
church 1
cigarette 5
cinema 2
city 6
civil servant 9
class 20
first/second class 20
class 30
English class 30
classical music 7
clean 15
to clean 16
to clean s.th up 16
clear 1
it's not quite clear 28
clever 10
climbing 8
clock 12
to close 12
closed 5
cloth 29
a cloth 29
table cloth 29

clothes 24
Clothes 24
(selection)
cloud(y) 1
club 2
night club 2
(rain)coat 24
code 25
post code 25
(telephoning 27)
coffee 3
black/white coffee 13
coke 4
cold 1
(to have) a cold 16
cold meats 31
colour 12
colour print 23
comb 23
to come 2
to come with s.o. 2
to come home 13
to come back (again) 16
to come and get s.o. 27
to come off 30
come on (now)! 32
comedy 7
comfortable 12
company 9
comprehensive (school) 10
concert 7
construction worker 9
continental breakfast 15
to cook 12
cooker 12
cool 1
corner 6
(just) round the corner 6
cornflakes 13
cotton 29
(material)
(cotton thread 30)
(to have) a cough 16
could 1
country 1
country 11
(countryside)
countryside 3
couple 11
course 10
English course 10
cousin 11
cow 7
cream 4
credit card 22
crisps 4
to cross 10
(zebra) crossing 6
crowded 1
to cry 32
cup 5
cup of coffee/tea 13
cupboard 12
curtains 12
custard 14
customs 19
cut 16
to cut 16
(bi)cycle 6

D

dad 11
to damage 30
damaged 28
to be damaged 28
to dance 2
dancing 2
to go dancing 2
dangerous 8
dark 11
dark hair 11
date (of birth) 26
Expressing the date 10
(including the year as a
date, e.g. 1981)

daughter 11
day 1
  all day 5
  days of the week 2
dead 32
to decide to do s.th 3
deck 19
deep 16
delay 18
delicious 13
dentist('s) 16
design 24
desk 18
dessert 17
detective 7
to dial 27
dictionary 28
diesel 22
different 10
difficult 10
dining room 12
dinner 11
dirt 22
dirty 3
disappointed 24
disco 2
dishwasher 12
to do 3
  to do s.th about s.th 12
  to do s.th up 24
  to do (quite) well 21
doctor('s) 16
documentary 7
dog 8
dull 23
dollar 25
(front/back) door 12
double 17
down 8
downstairs 12
Dr 4
to draw 23
drawer 12
dress 24
(electric) drill 30
drink 2
to drink 4
  something to drink 18
to drive 22
driver 9
dry 5
to dry 15
dull 7
duty-free 19

E

each other 4
ear 16
earache 16
early 1
  earlier 18
east 3
easter 10
easy 8
  easier 31
to eat 4
  something to eat 18
egg 5
  fried egg 13
either 5
electric 30
electricity 5
else 3
 something else 3
  anything else 23
empty 15
end 25
engine 22
England 1
english 10
  (language)
English 12
  (adj.)
  English money 15

English spelling 26
to enjoy s.th/oneself 1
enough 25
envelope 23
er- 17
essay 32
European countries 1
European languages 10
(selections)
even 7
evening 2
this evening 2
in the evening 2
ever 3
every 1
everybody/one 31
everything 3
everywhere 11
exam 10
except for 12
exchange rate 25
exciting 8
excuse me 3
(senior/junior) executive 9
exhaust 22
to expect 3
I expect we'll 3
expensive 3
to explain (s.th) 28
extra 15
eye 16

F
face 16
(face) cream 23
factory 9
(un)fair 10
fair 11
fair hair 11
to fall (off s.th) 16
family 11
fan belt 22
far 6
farm 7
Farm animals 7
(selection)
fast(er) 20
fat 11
father 11
fault 9
it's not my fault 9
favourite 10
to be fed up 32
to feel well 33
I don't feel well 33
to feel like s.th 3
I feel like a rest 3
feeling 9
(a) few 2
the/your last few 9
field 33
to fill 16
to fill s.th up 22
to fill in a form 15
filling station 22
film 7
(cinema)
film 23
(for camera)
to find 6
fine 1
fine weather 1
fine, thanks 17
(that's) fine 21
finger 16
to finish 33
fire 12
first 1
first time 1
I'll do that first 19
First names 4
(selection)
fish (and chips) 17
(to go) fishing 8
(to be) fit 8
to fix s.th 22

flash bulb 23
flat 12
(cf. house)
flat (adj.) 33
flight 14
charter flight 18
floor 12
(of room)
floor 15
fifth floor 15
flour 5
flower 12
(to have) 'flu 16
fly 7
to fly 18
fog(gy) 1
folk music 7
to follow 6
food 5
foot 16
foot 6
(measure)
football(er) 8
for 2
for a week 2
for a last drink 2
for the caravans 5
for breakfast 13
for my friends 19
foreman 9
forest 33
to forget 5
to forget to do s.th 5
let's forget all about it 29
fork 5
form 15
to fill in a form 15
form 10
(in school)
Forms of address 4
(selection)
forward 26
foul 8
free 33
(costs nothing 33)
duty-free 19
free kick 8
freezer 12
French 17
fresh (air) 33
fridge 12
fried 17
French fried (potatoes) 17
friend 7
boyfriend 4
girlfriend
(un)friendly 3
from 1
we're from Germany 1
front 12
front door 12
at the front 16
on the front of s.th 24
in front of 6
fruit 13
fruit salad 13
full 15
fun 15
funny 7
funny programmes 7
funny 22
(strange)
furniture 12
further 3

G

gallon 22
game 8
games 10
garage 12
garden 12
gas 5

gate 18
gentleman 10
Geography 10
German 10
(language)
German 13
(nationality, adj.)
Germany 1
to get 1
to get there (early) 1
to get home 13
to get one's money back 18
to get on/off a bus 20
to get in/out (of) 21
to get (un)dressed 24
to get on (all right) (with s.o.) 11
to get to know s.o. 4
to get up 31
gin 4
girl 4
to give 5
to give s.o. s.th 16
to give s.th back 5
to give (s.th) up 9
don't give up 28
glad 2
I'm glad you like it 13
glass 4
a glass of wine 4
glass 23
(material)
(sun)glasses 32
to go 1
to go there 1
to go out (with s.o.) 7
to go back 26 (return)
to go back 26 (reverse)
to go by bus/train etc. 18
to go for a walk/run/swim 33
to go on (the Inter-City) 20
to go and see s.o./s.th 33
to go swimming/skiing etc. 8
to go to bed/school/work 13
to go (very) well with 12
to go wrong 9
it won't go 22
go ahead 9
(let's) go on 28
goal 8
gold 23
good 1
to be good at s.th 8
to be good in school 8
goodbye 1
good-looking 11
good morning/afternoon/evening 15
good night 14
grammar school 10
grandfather/mother/son/daughter 11
grapefruit 17
grapefruit juice 17
grass 12
gravy 13
great 1
green 12
grey 12
grilled 17
ground 5
the ground is wet 5
ground floor 15
group 7
guide 28
guitar 8
gymshoes 24

H

hair 16
hair dryer 5
half 15
half past seven 15
half an hour 20

hall 12
ham 13
hamburger 17
hammer 30
hand 16
handbag 23
to happen 2
(un)happy 32
harbour 1
hard 8
  (not easy)
hard 13
  (not soft)
hat 24
to have 1
  to have s.th for breakfast etc. 13
  to have a shower/bath 15
have got 5
  have you got it now 28
to have to 7
  you'll have to 25
  had to 32
he 10
head 16
a headache 16
to head for 6
to hear 31
  I'm sorry to hear that 31
heart 16
heating 12
heavy 14
hello 1
help 5
to help (s.o.) 5
to help s.o. with s.th 11
help yourself (to s.th) 13
helpful 10
her 8
  (obj. pronoun)
her 5
  (poss. adj.)
here 1
  the trip here 2
here you are 5
hers 4
hey 33
high 8
hilly 33
him 8
to hire a car 18
his 5
  (poss. adj.)
his 4
  (poss. pronoun)
History 10
to hit 8
to hitch-hike 21
hitch-hiking 21
  a hitch-hiking holiday 21
hmm! 16
hole 16
holiday 1
(to be) on holiday 9
  Holiday resorts 3
  (selection)
home 2
at home 3
to go home 2
  Name of own home town/area of country 1
homework 10
to hope 1
horse 7
hospital 16
hot 1
hotel 1
hour 7
house 1
housewife 9
housework 11
hovercraft 18
how 10
  how old 10
  how are you 17
  how long 18

how about you 2
  how about a drink 4
how do you do 4
how many/much 15
hundred 18
hungry 17
to (be in a) hurry 21
to hurt oneself/one's leg etc 16
husband 4

I

I 2
ice cream 13
idea 6
idiot 32
if 3
if possible 18
to be ill 16
to imagine 8
important 9
in 1
  in school 10
  in bed 32
inch 6
to include 15
indicator(s) 22
(in) industry 9
information 6
  tourist information office 6
to be (badly) injured 26
insect 7
  Insects 7
  (selection)
inside 6
instead 18
insurance 26
Inter-City 20
interested (in) 7
  interested in s.th 7
  interested in + -ing 7
interesting 1
into 2
to introduce 4
  may I introduce 4
invitation 33
to invite s.o. 33
(Northern) Ireland 21
island 3
  Islands 3
  (selection)
it 1
its 4
  (poss. adj.)
ITV 7

J

jacket 24
jam (tart) 13
jazz 7
jeans 24
jewellery 7
job 9
  Own job 9
journey 14
jug 5
juice 4
  orange juice 4
to jump 21
  jump in then 21
junction 6
just 4
  just a small one 4
  just follow the signs 6
  I just bought one bottle 19
just 5
  you can just see them 5
just 7
  I've just bought 7

K

to keep 8
  keep the change 21
  keep going 28

to keep fit 8
kettle 5
(car) keys 32
to kick 8
kilo 19
kilometre 6
kind 10
  she's very kind 10
kind of 7
  what kind of music 7
king 28
kitchen 12
  Kitchen equipment 12
  (selection)
knee 16
knife 5
to knit 30
knitting 30
to know 7
  (not) to know s.o. (very) well 7
  to know s.th/s.o. 18
  I don't know 17
you know 17

L

lady 28
lager 4
lake 3
lamb (chop) 17
language 10
large 24
last 2
  a last drink 2
  last year 3
late 1
  later 2
to laugh 32
lawn 12
lazy 32
to learn 10
leather 23
  to leave 2
    we're leaving tomorrow 2
    my train leaves at 8.05 21
    to leave s.th somewhere 26
(on the) left 6
leg 16
leisure (activity) 8
lemonade 4
to lend (s.o.) s.th 5
less 10
  more or less 10
let's 1
  let me 14
letter 25
letter box 6
lettuce 13
(driving) licence 26
to lie 32
life 2
  night life 2
lift 15
to give s.o. a lift 21
light 12
  the light 12
light 14
  (not heavy)
light 24
  light green 24
lighter 5
lights 22
  (car accessories)
like 1
  like this 1
  what's .....like 9
to like 1
  to like doing s.th 8
  to like s.th (best) 10
  to like s.th better 31
if you like 7
line 8
to listen to 7
litre 22
little 2

to live 11
  to live with s.o. 11
  to live somewhere 27
  to live in a flat 31
living room 12
(to be) locked 22
London 1
  London stations 21
  (selection)
long 5
  a long cable 5
long 2
  are you staying long 2
  can't you stay a bit longer 14
to look 14
  it looks heavy 14
  that looks nice 24
look! 32
to look after s.o. 14
to look for 19
  I'm looking for a present 23
to look forward to s.th 9
to look like 11
look out! 16
to look (a)round 12
to have a look (at) 12
  let's have a look 16
lorry 6
to lose 8
  to lose a game 8
  to lose s.th 32
a lot (of) 7
loud 3
to love 31
  I'd love (to) 33
  I really love 31
lovely 13
low 8
LP 7
luck 2
(un)lucky 11
luggage 14
lunch 11

M

madam 4
made of 23
  something made of leather 23
magazine 23
main 5
  main road 5
to make 3
  to make plans 3
to make friends (with s.o.) 31
  I haven't made many friends so far 31
to make the most of s.th 9
make-up 23
man 6
to manage 13
  I can't manage any more 13
  I couldn't manage it 32
manager 9
many 19
  too many 19
map 6
mark 24
  dirty mark 24
mark 25
  (DM)
market 1
marmalade 13
married 11
marvellous 1
match 5
  (box of matches)
match 8
  football match 8
Maths 10
what's the matter 24
it doesn't matter 29
may 3
  we may go there 3

me 5
meal 11
mean 32
(with money)
mean 32
(unkind)
to mean 11
I mean 11
you mean 22
what does X mean 28
I don't know what X means 28
Measuring distance 6
(selection)
meat 13
medium 24
to meet 4
I'd like you to meet 4
meeting 9
to mention 16
I wanted to mention 16
menu 17
a mess 29
to make a mess of s.th 29
message 27
to take/leave a message 27
metal 23
metre 6
(in the) middle 16
mile 6
milk 3
milk pudding 13
million 18
to mind 7
I don't really mind 7
would you mind if 30
mine 4
minute 15
mirror 12
miserable 32
Miss 4
(form of address)
to miss 6
you can't miss it 6
to miss a train 21
modern 12
moment 15
money 15
month 12
Names of the months 1
moon 1
moped 30
more 7
more or less 10
morning 2
mosquito 7
most 11
most of it 18
mother 11
motor cycle 6
motorway 6
mountains 2
mouth 16
to move 5
Mr 4
Mrs 4
Ms 4
much 2
to like s.th very much 2
not too much traffic 21
mum 11
museum 1
music 3
musical instrument 8
Musical instruments 8
(selection)
we must 12
I (really) must 14
mustard 17
my 4

N

nail 30
name 26
Names of airlines 18

Names of cities 1
Names of footballers 8
Names of international companies 9
Names of tennis players 8
Names of towns and villages 30
Names of pop groups and musicians 7
(selections)
nature(films) 7
near 2
nearest 6
nearly 8
neck 16
necklace 32
to need s.th 5
needle 30
neighbour 11
... get(s) on (my) nerves 11
nervous 10
net 8
never 9
never mind 10
new 27
(the) news 7
New York 1
next 3
next time 3
what happened next 26
next to 5
nice 1
night 2
all night 5
a night out 33
nightdress 24
nil 8
no 1
nobody/one 31
noise 22
noisy 5
nor 9
nor am I 9
north 3
nose 16
not 1
(pound) note 25
note 27
to leave a note for s.o. 27
nothing 2
notice 28
to notice s.th 12
now 3
I understand it now 28
now 26
now, you were ... 26
number 27
wrong number 27
telephone number 27
Numbers and counting
1 - 12 2
13- 20 10
up to 1000 and above 18
nurse 16
nut(s) 4
nut(s) (tools) 30

O
o'clock 15
of 1
bottle of 19
of course (not) 3
off 30
a day off 30
office 9
often 1
oh! 1
oh 27
(= O)
oh dear! 21
oh well 18
oil 22
okay 2
(agreement2)
(accepting thanks 5)
(indicating comprehension 6)
(checking comprehension 28)
(neutral opinion 31)

old 10
  older 11
omelette 13
on 2
  on Monday 2
  on the site 5
  on TV 7
  on holiday 9
  on the hovercraft 18
on the whole 31
once 3
one 4
  a big one 4
  one of our 10
only 2
  only here for a week 2
open 5
to open 12
or 11
or so 22
  an hour or so 22
orange 12
  (colour)
orange (juice) 4
to order 17
  to order a meal 17
  Ordinal numbers
  first 6
  second 6
  third 6
  above third and dates 10
ordinary 7
other 7
the other day 24
our 10
ours 31
out 19
outside 6
over 6
  go over the big bridge 6
over here 31
to overtake 26
own 11
  my own room 11
    Own favourite sport/leisure activity 8
    Own job/company 9
    Own pet 8
    Own instrument 8

P

to pack 14
packet 19
page 23
(a) pain 16
to paint s.th 12
pair (of) 24
(frying) pan 5
(news)paper 6
paper handkerchiefs 23
parcel 25
pardon 28
parent 11
park 33
to park 6
(spare) part(s) 22
    Parts of the body 16
    (selection)
party 33
to pass 3
  to pass an exam 10
  could you pass the sugar 3
  (football 8)
passenger 18
passport 19
past 8
  to hit s.th past s.o. 8
  five past four 15
path 33
patient 16

pattern 24
to pay (for s.th) 17
P.E. 10
pea(s) 17
pen 23
penalty 8
p(ence) 15
pencil 23
people 3
pepper 17
perhaps 1
pet 8
petrol 22
Pfennig(s) 25
photo 23
  to take a photo 23
piano 8
to pick s.o./s.th up 27
picnic 5
pie 13
piece 13
  piece of cake 13
  piece for a camera 32
pig 7
pillow 15
(safety) pin 30
(half a) pint (of) 4
place 1
  a nice place 1
  (seat etc. 18)
plain 24
  (without a pattern, simple)
plan 3
to plan 18
plane 18
plasters 23
plastic 23
plate 5
platform 20
to play 8
  to play a game 8
  to play a musical instrument
to please 3
(to be) pleased 24
pliers 30
to plug s.th in 5
plug(s) 22
pocket 34
police 26
policeman 6
police station 26
  police car 26
pop (music) 7
popular 7
pork (chop) 17
  pork pie 13
to post s.th 25
postcard 23
poster 23
post office 25
(tea/coffee) pot 29
potato 13
pound 19
  half a pound 19
pound 19
  five pound note 25
prescription 16
present 23
president 28
to press (a button) 3
pretty 12
prime minister 28
probably 25
programme 7
to promise 21
to pronounce 26
properly 22
pub 2
pudding 13
  (= dessert 17)
to pull 5
pullover 24
purse 26
to push 5
to put 5
  to put a tent up 5

to put s.th somewhere 15
to put s.th away 19
to put s.th on 24
pyjamas 24

Q

quarter 15
queen 28
question 10
quick(er) 28
quiet 5
quite 7

R

race 8
(sport)
(tennis) racket 8
radio 7
to rain 1
rain 1
rather 11
I'd rather have/do 9
razor 5
to read 14
ready 22
reel 23
really 7
really awful 10
really 11
...., really 11
reasonable 3
receipt 24
reception 1
receptionist 15
to recommend s.th 17
record 7
red 12
referee 8
to relax 8
to remember 14
to rent s.th 12
rep. 9
(representative)
to repair 22
reservation 18
a rest 3
the rest (of) 2
restaurant 2
return (ticket) 20
rice 5
to ride 22
riding 8
right 9
(correct)
(on the) right 6
right! 22
ring 32
to ring s.o. up 27
river 33
road 5
roast 17
roast meat/potatoes 17
rock (music) 7
roll 3
room 15
(a)round 1
to go round the harbour 1
round 29
(shape)
roundabout 6
rubbish 5
rucksack 21
to run 8
it's not running properly 22
to run into s.th 26
(to go for) a run 33

S

safe 8
to sail 8
(to go) sailing 8
salad 13
sale 24
salesperson 9
salt 5
the same 10

sandwich 13
saucer 5
sausage 31
saw 30
  (tool)
to say 9
  you said you'd 32
(at/in) school 10
    School subjects 10
    (selection)
schnapps 4
Schnitzel 31
Science 10
  (school subject)
scissors 30
Scotland 21
screw 30
screwdriver 30
sea 3
seat 18
second 5
  just a second 5
second 6
  (ordinal numbers)
    Second names/surnames 4
    (selection)
secondary school 10
secretary 9
to see 2
  see you (then/later) 2
I see 11
you see 15
(un)selfish 32
self-service 17
to sell 5
to send 18
  to send s.th back 18
sensible 32
sentence 26
serious 16
to serve 8
service (area) 22
shade 1
shall 3
  (what) shall we do/have 17
  where shall we go 33
shampoo 23
to share 11
to (have a) shave 5
shaving stuff 23
(book)shelf/shelves 12
she 10
sheep 7
sheet 15
sherry 4
ship 18
  on the ship 19
shirt 24
shoes 24
shop 1
(to go) shopping 23
short 5
shorts 24
should 20
  it should be here soon 20
  I should think 21
  it should be all right 29
shoulder 16
to show s.o. s.th 25
shower 12
side 6
sideboard 12
sign 6
to sign 18
silly 32
silver 23
since 20
  since half past three 20
to sing 7
single 15
  single room 15
  single ticket 20
sink 12
sir 17
sister 11

to sit (down) 16
size 23
to ski 8
(to go) skiing 8
skin 16
skirt 24
sky 1
to (go to) sleep 13
sleeping bag 5
slide 23
(photography)
slow(er) 20
slowly 31
small 4
smell 22
to smile 32
smog 1
to smoke 9
snack bar 2
snow 1
to snow 1
so 19
(conj.)
so 8
so is tennis 8
so do we 10
so 2
so hot 2
so many people 31
soap 23
(pair of) socks 24
sofa 12
so far 19
soft 13
(not hard)
some 5
somebody/one 15
something 4
sometimes 7
somewhere 3
son 11
song 7
soon 1
sorry 2
to be sorry for s.o. 11
I'm terribly sorry 29
sorry? 28
sort of 14
soup 17
sour 17
south 3
souvenir 23
spanner 30
to speak 27
S speaking 27
where are you speaking from 27
to speak English 28
speak up 28
special 7
speed limit 31
to spell 26
to spend 12
to spend time 12
to spend an evening etc. 14
to spend money 32
spider 7
spoon 5
sport(s) 7
spring 8
square 29
stadium 8
the stairs 19
stamp 25
to stand (up) 16
I can't stand 31
star 1
two-star petrol 22
to start 2
to start work 2
to start to overtake 26
starter 17
station 14
to stay 1
to stay in 7

to stay with s.o. 13
to stay a bit longer 14
to stay in a hotel 26
steak 17
(stainless) steel 23
steep 33
step 16
stereo 7
still 10
still at school 10
stolen 7
it's been stolen 26
stomach 16
stomach ache 16
to stop 6
storm(y) 1
story 28
(keep) straight on 6
street 1
strong(er) 4
Strong drinks 4
(selection)
student 10
stupid 10
subject 10
suddenly 26
sugar 3
suit 24
(suit)case 14
summer 8
sun(ny) 1
sun oil 23
supermarket 23
I suppose 10
to be sure 1
I'm sure you'd 1
not to be (too) sure about 12
are you sure 13
I'm sure you'll 31
surname 4
surprise(d) 27
sweet 17
(adj.)
sweets 23
to swim 8
(to go for) a swim 33
(to go) swimming 8
swimming pool 2
swimming stuff 24
synthetics 29

T

table 12
tablet 16
to take 21
how long does it take 21
to take s.o./s.th 8
to take the dog out 8
to take s.o. somewhere 21
I'll take it 15
to take the car ferry 19
to take s.th off 24
to talk (to s.o.) 3
tall 11
taxi 21
tea 3
(drink)
tea 11
(meal)
to teach 9
teacher 9
team 8
teenager 17
telegram 25
to telephone 25
telephone box 6
telephone number 27
Expressing telephone numbers 27
to tell (s.o. s.th) 6
could you tell me 25
Telling the time 15
(including times expressed in two figures, e.g. 10.30) 20
tennis (player) 8
tennis court 8

tent 5
terrible 1
terribly 29
test 10
than 7
better than TV 7
thanks (for) 1
no thanks 9
thank you 1
no thank you 4
that 2
the 1
theatre 2
their 4
theirs 4
them 11
then 3
let's do that, then 3
then 6
(sequence of actions)
there 1
there is/are 5
over/up/down/along there 5
they 5
thin 11
thing 3
to think 1
what do you think of it 1
I think we'll 3
that's what you think 32
I was thinking of + noun 33
to think about s.th 33
I haven't thought about it yet 33
I (don't) think so 5
third 6
thirsty 17
this 1
this evening etc. 2
these 12
those 5
thoughtful 32
thousand 18
(a sore) throat 16
through 5
through train 20
to throw s.th 8
to throw s.th away 5
thumb 16
ticket 18
(un)tidy 32
tights 24
tiles 12
till 26
till the 20th 26
time 1
a great time 1
time for s.th 8
time of year 12
the time when 32
time 2
this/the first time 2
three times
on time 32
tin 19
tin/can opener 5
tip 1
thanks for the tip 1
tip 17
to leave a tip 17
tired 9
to 1
five to three 15
(to do s.th) to .....(purpose) 32
toast 13
today 21
toilet(s) 5
tomato 13
tomorrow 1
tonight 33
too 5
I've got some too 5

too 3
too crowded 3
too much/many 19
tool 30
Tools etc. 30
(selection)
tooth 16
toothache 16
toothbrush 23
toothpaste 23
top 16
at the top 16
(guided) tour 28
tourist 28
towel 15
tower 28
town 2
to go into town 2
toy(shop) 8
traditional 12
traffic 2
traffic lights 8
train 14
tram 20
to travel 28
travel agency/agent 18
tray 17
tree 5
trip 2
trouble 5
what's the trouble 5
trousers 24
truck 6
(not) true 28
to try 1
to try to do s.th 28
to try s.th on 24
T-shirt 24
to turn 3
to turn on/off 3
to turn up/down 3
to turn left/right 6
TV/television 7
twice 3
(flat) tyre 22

U

uhuh 6
umbrella 14
uncle 11
under 6
underground 20
to understand (s.th) 28
underwear 24
up 8
up the stairs 19
upset 32
upstairs 12
us 2
the US 1
to use s.th 30
usually 1

V

valley 36
van 6
vase 23
vegetable 13
very 1
very much 2
village 30
visitor 6
vodka 4

W

to wait (for s.o./s.th) 20
half an hour to wait 20
waiter 8
waitress 8
to wake up 13
Wales 21
to walk 8
(to go for) a walk 33
wall 12

wallet 26
wallpaper 12
wall unit 12
to want (to do s.th) 7
  not quite what I wanted 23
wardrobe 12
warm 1
wash 15
  to have a wash 15
to wash 15
  to wash one's hair 15
  to wash a car 31
washing machine 12
washing up 11
wasp 7
to watch 7
watch 32
  (e.g. wristwatch)
water 3
way 2
  all the way 2
  the way to 6
  on my/the way (to) 21
we 1
weak(er) 4
to wear 24
weather 1
week 2
weekend 14
  have a nice weekend 14
well 7
  to know s.o. well 7
well 1
  well, goodbye for now 1
very well, thanks 17
  I don't feel well 33
west 3
wet 5
what 1
what a 27
  what a nice surprise 27
what's s.o./s.th like 11
what's the time 15
what time 15
(spare) wheel 22
when 9
where 1
  where are you from 1
  where in Germany 1
  the place where 28
which 7
while 16
  while she is on holiday 16
a while 11
  for a while 11
  in a while 31
whisky 4
white 12
who 27
whose 4
why (not) 3
wife 4
will 2
to win 8
wind(y) 1
window 12
wine 4
winter 8
I wish 32
with 8
  to be with a company 9
  with me 19
  to pay with a cheque 25
without 24
woman 6
wood 23
wool 29
word 22
  the word for s.th 28
work 2
  to work (in/for) 9
(not) working (properly) 22

working surface 12
world 1
to worry (about s.th) 21
(to be) worried (about s.o./s.th) 30
worse 18
worst 10
worth 22
  five pounds worth 22
would 9
would like (to do s.th) 1
to wrap (s.th) 23
to write (to s.o.) 14
writing paper 23
wrong 9
  when something goes wrong 9
  the wrong deck 19
  something wrong (with s.th/s.o.) 22

XY

x-ray 16
year 3
yellow 12
yes 1
yesterday 1
(not) yet 1
you 1
young 10
  younger 11
your 1
yours 10

Z

zip 24
Zoo animals
(selection)

6.3 List of collocations (just under 500 items)

The collocations which occur in the foundation dialogues are listed here in alphabetical order. Question/request/suggestion words are generally treated as if they are more important than the other elements in their collocations, which are listed accordingly. For ease of reference there are a number of double entries. No single lexical items occur which are not also included in the preceding list of lexical items. The numbers following the entries refer to the dialogues in which the collocations first occur.

A

about ... (I should think) 21
accidents can happen 30
..., I'm afraid 16
I'm afraid not 14
I'm afraid that's true 26
after that 26
... afterwards 17
all right 7
well, it's all right 5
it's all right, thanks 14
all the way 2
it's always been like that 31
And you? 1
another one (instead) 24
and another thing 32
and so on 11
Was there an announcement about ...? 18
any minute 20
any more 7
anyway 3
(just) as ... as 8
at John's 33
anything/nothing at all 15
I've just arrived (at/in...) 27
at (home/school/work) 3
at last 26
at least 18
at the beginning/end 25
at the front/back/top/bottom 16
to be away 27

B

it's not as bad as that 32
not too bad 7
it isn't/wasn't too bad 7
Is that better? 32
you'd better (try) ... 32
my birthday's on (+ date) 10
a bit (faster/slower), please 28
(it's a bit too ... 24
was born 11
do you think I could borrow ... 30
(let's do) both 33
(please) don't bother 27
Sorry to bother you 19
to bring a friend/s.o. home (with one) 30
to be broken 29
to be (in .../there) by (six) 21
by the (river) 33
by the way 1

C

to call an ambulance/the police 26
can I have (the menu/the bill), please 17
Can I help you? 23
Can you imagine it? 8
Can you show me some ... 23
Can you spell that, please 26
Can you tell me the way to... 6
it's been cancelled 18
I can't promise 21
can't you be (a bit)(more)... 32
I don't care 32
I'd be very careful (with it) 30
(one pound) in change 25
to change a booking/reservation 18
to check in 18

Cheer up! 32
Cigarette? 9
It's not quite clear 28
come again soon, (won't you) 14
come (back) and see me again 16
to come home 13
come on now 32
Have you come far today? 21
to come and get/pick up s.o./s.th 27
could I (have ...), please 17
could I cash a Traveller's Cheque/Eurocheque, please 25
could I try it on, please 24
could we order, please 17
could you ... for me, please 22
Could you help me? 5
could you lend me ... 30
could you pass the ..., please 3
could you say that again, please 28
could you tell me (the exchange rate, please 25
I couldn't manage it 32
it could be worse 18
you could ... 6
you could be lucky, (but...) 26
(so) you could have..., then 19
you could (still) have some trouble (with it) 16
to cross the Channel 19

D
to be (badly) damaged 26
date of birth 26
to decide to do s.th 3
to dial a/the wrong number 27
to do s.th about s.th 12
to do (quite) well 21
Oh, do you 32

E
anything/something else 23
Did you want anything else 23
somewhere else 3
to enjoy s.th/oneself 1
we enjoyed having you 14
except for 12
excuse me, (please) 3
I expect (+ noun clause) 5
I expect it's ... 22
can you explain this (...), please 28
... extra 15

F
Is it far? 6
it's (always/not) my fault 9
What's your favourite ...? 10
to feel like s.th 3
to feel like a rest 3
I (just) don't feel like it 33
(not) to feel well 33
a few days 2
a few (months) old 12
it's only a few (miles) 6
to fill in a form 15
to fill it/s.th up 22
fine, thanks 17
... first, then 19
(just) follow the signs 6
for (breakfast) 13
for a(n) (adult) 23
for a (week) 15
for a while 11
... for me, please 4
for the last (two or three/few days) 16
Let's forget all about it 29

we're from 1
from home 19

G
to get home 13
to get on (all right) with s.o. 11
... get(s) on (my) nerves 11
to get one's money back 18
to get to know s.o./each other 4
... when you get to know them 31
to get up 13
to give s.o. a call 15
to give s.o. a lift 21
to give s.th up 9
don't give up 28
I'm glad you enjoyed it 14
I'm glad you like it 13
Go ahead 9
to go and do s.th 18
to go and see s.o/s.th 33
to go by car/ship/train 18
to go for a walk/run/swim 33
to go into town (for s.th) 2
Go on 28
to go on (the Inter-City) 20
to go out 7
go over/under ... 6
(not) to go (properly) 22
to go to bed 13
to go to school/work 13
to go to sleep 13
to go (very) well with s.th 12
to go wrong 9
when something goes wrong ... 9
It won't go 22
quite good 9
to be (quite) good at s.th 10
(not) to be (very) good at s.th 8
Goodbye for now 1
Well, goodbye then 14
(not) to be very good in school 10
that's a good idea 6
Good morning/afternoon/evening 15
(Well,) good night (then) 14
That's great! 19
a guided tour 28

H
have a good (journey/trip) 14
to have a look at s.th 12
have a nice (evening/weekend 14
to have a bath/shower/wash 15
to have a pain (in one's...) 16
to have (a week) off 30
(not) to have enough money 25
to have (some) trouble (with s.th) 16
I'm having ... 17
I've been here since ... 20
I've had a marvellous time 14
... haven't/hasn't ... yet 20
(I think) I'll (just) have ... 17
have you ever (been there/to ...) 3
have you got any (brothers or sisters) 11
Have you got it now? 28
it's got a hole in it/a mark on it/on the front/on the back 24
Do I have to (change)? 20
I'll have to check 18
you'll have to ask ... 25
Can I help you? 15
help yourself (to ...) 13
Here you are 5
to hire a car 18
(to be/go/meet) on holiday 9
home address 26
I hope (+ noun clause) 6
let's hope (+ noun clause) 1
Let's hope so 1
I hope you enjoyed/liked ... 17

I hope you enjoy your trip 19
how about (+ noun etc.) 4
How about this one? 24
How about you? 2
How are you? 17
How do you do 4
How do you pronounce this word? 26
how long 21
How much is/are ... 15
How much is a letter/post-card to Germany? 25
How much is it, please? 15
How old are you? 10
How would you like (the money) 25
to be in a hurry 21
to hurt one's .../ oneself 16

I

if possible 18
if that's all right 13
if you like 7
Can you imagine it? 8
in a while 31
in here 12
in the (country) 33
to be in 27
in bed 32
does that include ... 15
to be (badly) injured 26
... instead 18
to be very interested in (+ noun or -ing) 7
it's because ... 31
it's (been) very interesting (so far) 19
it's easier/harder (to do s.th) 31
it's not quite what I wanted 23
it's too crowded 3
(then) it's the (first etc.) 6
it's/it was a(n)(old/cheap) one anyway 29

J

just a second 5
just as ... as 8
I just don't feel like it 33
(I think) I'll just have ... 17
just past s.th 28
just round the corner 6
I just said ... 32

K

to keep fit 8
Keep going 28
Keep straight on 6
Keep the change 21
I know 30
you know 17
you know how it is 11
I don't know 7
I don't know the word for this thing 22
I don't know what ... means 28

L

your/the last few days 9
to learn a language 10
to leave a message 27
to leave a note (for s.o.) 27
to leave a tip 17
to lend (s.o.) s.th 5
let me ... 14
let's ... 7
let's go on, then 28
let's hope (+ noun clause) 1
let's/let me have a look 16
to lie in bed 32
if you like 7
you'd like ... 3
to like s.th best 10
to like s.th better 8
(but) I like (ours) better 31

to like doing s.th 8
like this 1
Listen to you! 32
to look forward to s.th 9
I'm looking for ... 19
Look out! 16
to look (a)round 12
it looks (sort of)(heavy) 14
that looks nice 24
a lot of 7
I (really) love ... 31
I'd love to 33

M
(something) made of ... 23
to make a mess of s.th 29
to make friends (with s.o.) 31
to (try and) make the most of s.th 9
I can manage 14
I think (we) can manage it 22
I (really) can't manage any more 13
I couldn't manage it 32
it doesn't matter 29
May I introduce ... 4
I mean, ... 11
the ..., you mean 22
you mean the ... 22
it was (very) mean of you 32
I don't (really) mind 7
Do you mind if I (smoke)? 9
Would you mind (if ...) 30
you can't miss it 6
just a moment 15
(I'm)(a lot) more ... than (you are) 32
more or less 10
most of it 18
most of the time 11
I really must go now 14
we must (do s.th) 12

N
(I think) I need ... 22
I (only) need (to do s.th) 5
never mind 10
it was (very) nice of you 32
nice to meet you 4
a night out 33
nor am I 9
no thanks/thank you 4
(there's) nothing to pay 19
(but) not too much 13
not very much 7
(no,) not yet 1
Now ... (you say/said) 26
now you (try) (try to ...) 28

O
of course 3
yes, of course 5
of course not 9
(to have) a (day/afternoon/week) off 30
Oh dear! 21
Oh no 8
..., okay? 28
That's okay 5
Well, okay then 33
(yours) is okay, but ... 31
(to be/go/meet) on holiday 9
(I'm) on my/the way to ... 21
on the front/back 24
on the left/right 6
on the whole 31
to be on time 32
a big one/(just) a small one 4
(Oh,) this/that one('s)(nice) 23
one of 10

(an hour) or so 22
or something 17
the other channel 7
the other day 24
(to go out) the other way 19
to be out 27
a (night/day) out 33
over here 31
(your) own ... 11

P
(to have) a pain (in one's ...) 16
Pardon? 28
to pay for s.th (with a cheque) 25
to pay for a meal 17
(nothing) to pay 19
..., perhaps? 23
perhaps we could ... 1
perhaps we'll ... 3
the place where ... 28
please don't worry about it 29
I can't promise 21
How do you pronounce this word? 26

Q
quite (good) 9

R
rather (quiet) 11
I'd rather ... 8
really (awful) 10
..., really 11
to recommend s.th 17
(Oh,) I've just remembered 22
remember me/us to your (parents/family), (won't you) 14
to rent (a flat/a room) 12
the rest (of) 2
Right. 22
(Yes,) that's right
(just) round the corner 6
(not) to run (properly) 22
to run into the back of s.th 26

S
in the/for sale 24
you said you'd ... 32
to say/said (+ noun clause) 26
the same 10
just a second 5
I see. 11
you see 15
I'll see what I can do 21
you'll see ... 6
see you (then/later) 2
Do you sell ...? 23
Shall I ... ? 3
Shall I check the ... ? 22
Shall we have ... ? 17
(I think) it/everything should be all right now 22
it should be here any minute/in about ... 20
we should be in ... /there by ... 21
(I've been here) since ... 20
Single or return? 20
(my)(German) size is ... 24
So ... 19
So do I/we 10
So does (+ noun etc.) 11
so far 19
So is ... 8
somebody/s.o./s.th special 30
someone I met (at/in ...) 30
something exciting/interesting 33

something to eat/drink 18
(there's) something wrong with ... 22
Sorry? 28
I'm (very) sorry 5
I'm terribly sorry 29
to be sorry for s.o. 11
I'll/we'll be sorry to ... 2
I'm sorry to hear that 31
sorry to bother you 19
sort of 14
Do/don't you speak English? 28
(can/could you) speak up (a bit), please 28
... speaking 27
Can you spell that, please? 26
to spend money 32
to spend (most of) (one's) time 12
I can't stand ... 31
to start to do s.th 26
to start school/work 2
to stay in 7
(to be) still (at school) 10
do you still want to ... 18
I suppose (+ noun clause) 10
I suppose it's because 31
I'm sure (+ noun clause) 1
I'm sure you'd (enjoy yourself) 33
I'm sure you'd like it 1
not to be (too) sure (about s.th) 12

T

to take a message 27
to take a photo 23
to take a taxi 27
to take s.o. somewhere 21
to take s.o./s.th out 8
(I think) I'll take it (anyway) 15
to tell s.o. s.th 13
to tell s.o. (+ noun clause) 13
Can you tell me the way to ...? 6
Thanks again 6
Thanks for ... 1
Thanks for your help 5
Thank you for ... 14
Thank you very much for looking after me 14
no thanks/no thank you 4
That's all right 19
That's/that was different 32
That's fine 21
That's not a ... 33
That's (not) true 26
That's what you always say 32
That's what <u>you</u> think 32
That would be nice 2
..., then 3
over/up/down/along there 5
to be there at ... 32
to be there by ... 21
there is/are 5
there's a hole in it/a mark on it 24
there's no (bus) 30
there's something wrong with ... 22
there's (an hour) to wait 20
I think (+ noun clause) 3
I think I've 27
I think I need ... 22
I (don't) think so 5
do you think ... 5
do you think I could borrow ... 30
I didn't think 32
I was thinking of ... 24
to (have to) think about s.th 33
this morning/afternoon/evening 2
I haven't thought about it yet 33
I thought you (<u>did</u> s.th) 8
a through train 20
to throw s.th away 5
a ticket to ..., please 20

till (the 20th) 26
(How about) the time (when)... 32
time for s.th 8
time of (year) 12
(a postcard) to (Germany) 25
to do s.th to ... s.o./s.th 32
tomorrow morning/afternoon/evening/night 8
to have some trouble (with s.th) 16
to try to (find) s.th 26
turn left/right (at the ...) 6

U
I don't understand (it/s.th) 28
up the stairs 19
I don't usually (lend it to anybody) 30

V
very much 2
very well, thanks 17
I'm a visitor here 6

W
(there's) (an hour) to wait 20
to wake up 13
you want a ... 20
I (don't) want to ... 7
do you (still) want to ... 18
well,... 1
What a (nice surprise) 27
what are you having? 17
what colour would you like/is it? 24
What do you call these, please? 23
What do you think of ...? 1
What does he look like? 11
What does ... mean, please? 28
What happened? 2
What's/what was it about? 7
What's (he/she/it) like? 1
What's the matter? 24
What's the pay like? 9
What's the time? 15
What's the trouble? 5
What's the word for this/that (thing), please? 28
What's your favourite ...? 10
What's your job? 9
What kind of ... (do you like)? 7
What size did you want? 23
What time is ..., please? 15
What would you like? 17
What would you like to drink/eat? 4
When do you want to go? 18
When is (your birthday)? 10
Where are you from? 1
Where are you heading for? 21
Where are you speaking from? 27
Where can I (get) ...? 19
Where else could I try? 15
Which ... is it, please? 20
Which (...) would you like? 7
for a while 11
in a while 31
Why not? 3
I wish (+ noun clause) 32
I wish I was 32
I'm with (name of company) 9
with or without ... 24
(not) to work (properly) 22
(to be) worried (about s.th) 30
Don't worry 21
Please don't worry about it 29
... worth 22
That would be nice 2
Would you just ... 15

Would you like (some)(more)...?
13

Would you like to ...? 2

I'd like a ..., please 4

I'd like you to meet ... 4

You'd like ... 3

I'd love to 33

Would you mind (if ...) 30

the wrong ... 19

YZ

(that was) years ago 32

Yes, please 13

... yet 2

I haven't thought about it
yet 33

not yet 20

6.4 List of structures

The following list is an attempt to isolate those structures in the foundation dialogues (FD) which involve teaching points for German pupils. The numbering of the section headings is taken from A Grammar of Spoken English (GSE)(MACKIN and EASTWOOD, 1980).

Comparing FD with other similar registers (see 7.2) revealed considerable differences of opinion on what should be included in such lists. Missing numbers on Mackin and Eastwood's 40 point classification reflect differences of this kind between FD and GSE. There is no implied comparison between the two systems, which were prepared for quite different purposes.

Some areas covered in GSE are not treated as grammar in FD (e.g. 1 Word order, 25 Prepositions, 26 Verbs with adverbs and prepositions, 31 Numbers, money etc. and the communicative uses of language covered under 32-36), and other areas have deliberately been omitted from the FD catalogue, at least as far as the traditional German teaching points are concerned, e.g. 12 Reported speech, 16 The infinitive and the -ing form, 17 The -ing form and the -ed form).

In a few cases Mackin and Eastwood's terminology was found to be unsatisfactory. The terms intensifiers and non-assertive forms were taken over from Quirk (QUIRK and GREENBAUM, 1973). The term temporal sequence forms was taken over from Werlich (WERLICH, 1976:170-172).

In GSE the non-assertive forms are not grouped in a single section. As some of them occur in 9 (Replacing words and leaving out words), this number has been requisitioned for non-assertive forms in the FD list. Both intensifiers and temporal sequence forms appear in 24 (Adverbs and adverbials). This is the only major change of a heading. Noun clauses emerged as a very important structural element in FD. They are therefore covered in detail here, although they are not usually considered difficult for German learners.

As the content of the sections in GSE does not always match that in FD very closely, alphabetical order has been preferred to Mackin and Eastwood's classification below the section level

Some structures occur only in collocations in FD, e.g. the passive. Such structures are printed in brackets below. Examples are listed in order of occurrence. The numbers indicate the dialogue in which an example occurs. Where the examples consist of a list of lexical items, these are in alphabetical order with no reference to the dialogues.

The sub-headings include both grammatical terms, e.g. complement, and lexical items which involve teaching points, e.g. own, ago.

In a few cases items are grouped according to form rather than function (or vice versa) for convenience, e.g. most of the time which appears under comparison of adjectives (see QUIRK and GREENBAUM, 1973:131 for a note on this problem). To want to is included with the modal auxiliaries, and a few with the non-assertive forms.

2 VERBS: TALKING ABOUT THE PRESENT

simple present

e.g. we like ... very much 2
P serves hard 8
when do you usually get up 13

present progressive

e.g. are you enjoying your holiday 1
we're having a great time 1
I'm looking for ... 19
you're doing quite well 21
it's not running properly 22
I'm staying ... 26

3 VERBS: TALKING ABOUT THE PAST

past tense

e.g. what happened 2
I checked them this morning 22

present perfect

e.g. have you been to the ... yet 1
have you ever ... 3
we've been abroad twice now 3
I've just bought ... 7
it's been very interesting so far 19
have you come far today 21
I've made a mess of ... 29
a button has come off my ... 30
it's always been like that 31
I haven't made many friends so far 31
I haven't thought about it yet 33

present perfect with since and for

e.g. I've had a headache for the last two or three days 16
I've been here since ... 20

past continuous

e.g. I was watching ... 7
I was thinking of blue 24
you were telephoning, you say 26
... says your brake lights weren't working 26

4 VERBS: TALKING ABOUT THE FUTURE

simple future

e.g. we'll be sorry to leave 2
we'll be there at about ... 2
I expect we'll 3
I'll give it back later 5
will they be open 5
I'll go and (have ...) 18

present progressive expressing future

e.g. we're going into town this evening 2
what are you having 17
are you using your car this afternoon 30

simple present expressing future

e.g. I start work on Monday 2

5 VERBS: BE AND HAVE

to be

complement

e.g. the trip here was terrible 2
I'm a secretary 9

it is + complement

e.g. it's very crowded 1
it's a nice place 1
it will soon be time for ... 8

that is + complement

e.g. that would be nice 2
that's okay 5
that's a good idea 6

there is/are

e.g. is there a shop on the site 5
there's an hour to wait 20

have got

e.g. they've got everything 5
have you got any ... 11

6 THE IMPERATIVE AND LET'S

e.g. try and get there early 1
let's hope ... 1
let's hope so 1
keep straight on 6
turn left 6
just follow the signs 6
let's go out 7
have a good journey 14
Look out! 16
Let's/let me have a look 16
don't worry 21
keep the change 21
jump/get in 21
don't bother 27
speak up (a bit) 28
let's go on, then 28
now you try 28
don't give up 28
go on 28
keep going 28
please don't worry about it 29
let's forget all about it 29
Listen to you! 32
Cheer up! 32
come on now 32
Come on! 32

7 MODAL VERBS

you'd better

e.g. you'd better give me ... 26

can

e.g. you can plug it in 5
can you tell me ... 6
can you imagine it 8
can I have 17
you can put ... 21
can you show me ... 22

could

e.g. could you pass ... 3
could I borrow ... 5
you could have ... 19
could you have a look at 22
you could be lucky 26
could you say that again 28
do you think I could ... 30
I could take you there 30
I couldn't manage it 32

to have to do

e.g. we (don't) have to ... 7
I'll have to check 18
do I have to ... 20

may

e.g. may I introduce ... 4

(must

e.g. we must do something about it 1
I really must go now 14)

should

e.g. I should think 21
we should be in ... by ... 21
everything should be all right

to want to do

e.g. I don't want to ... 7

would

e.g. that would be nice 2
I'd rather play ... 8
I wouldn't say that 9

would you ..., please 15
I'd be careful 30
I'd be worried (about ...) 30
would you mind if I ... 30
I'd love (+ noun) 33

would like

e.g. I'm sure you'd like it 1
would you like to ... 2
I'd like you to ... 4
what would you like (to drink) 4
I'd like to ... 18

8 TAGS ETC.

short answers

e.g. no, I didn't 7
yes, you can 20
yes, I have 27

comments

e.g. do you? 10
could you? 30

tags

e.g. you'll come again soon, won't you 14
..., aren't you 16

9 NON-ASSERTIVE FORMS ETC.

already - yet

e.g. have you been to the ... yet 1
no, not yet 1
have already chatted 2

always - never

e.g. I'm always/never tired 9

at all

e.g. we haven't got anything at all 15

either - too

e.g. I haven't got any either 5
I've got some too 5

a few

e.g. a few days 2
the last few days 9

much, many, a lot of

e.g. a lot of TV 7
not too much (...) 13
I haven't made many friends 31

so - nor

e.g. nor am I 9
so do we 10
(see also so as pro-form)

some - any

e.g. we haven't made any plans yet 3
some handbags 23

some/every/any/no//body/one/where/thing

e.g. more or less the same every/anywhere 10
I think everybody would 11

still - any more

e.g. still at school 10
she doesn't live here any more 27

(10 THE PASSIVE

e.g. was/were born 11
it's been cancelled 18
it's been stolen 26)

11 IF-CLAUSES

e.g. if you do A, don't do B 3
if you like, we can ... 7
if that's all right 13
if A, (I'll have to) do B 16
if you hurry, you'll still catch your train 21
we can do A if we've got B 22
... if you like 30

15 THE -ING FORM

e.g. to be interested in swimming etc. 7
to like doing s.th 8
to go swimming etc. 8

(thank you for looking after me 14)
(we enjoyed having you 14)
you don't like spending money 32

20 PRONOUNS AND PRO-FORMS
both
e.g. let's do both 33
demonstrative
(each other
e.g. we got to know each other 4)
one
e.g. a big one 4
there's one over there 5
one of our ... 10
this one 16
another one 24
people
e.g. why don't people ... 31
personal
possessive
possessive case of nouns
e.g. at John's 33
(reflexive
e.g. help yourself/selves 13
to hurt oneself 16)
so - not
e.g. let's hope so/not 1
I (don't) think so 5
so is tennis 8
so do we 10

21 QUESTIONS
could
e.g. could I try it on 24
could you tell me ... 25
could I borrow ... 30
could you lend me ... 30
did you want
e.g. did you want anything else 23
don't you
e.g. don't you speak English 28
how
e.g. how do you keep fit 8
how old are you 10
how about
e.g. how about you 2
how about a drink 4
how about tomorrow 33
how long
e.g. how long will/does ... take 25
how much
e.g. how much is it 15
how much/many
e.g. how many ... did you want 25
how would you like
e.g. how would you like the money 25
do you know
e.g. do you know how long ... 18
noun as question
e.g. cigarette? 9
shall I/we
e.g. shall I ask them to ... 3
shall I fill it up 22
shall I come and get you 27
what
e.g. what happened 2
what's the trouble 5
what's your job 9
what's your favourite ... 10
what's the time 15
what do you call these 22
what size did you want 23
what colour would you like/ is it 24
what does ... mean 28
what's the word for this/ that (thing) 28
what do you need 30

what is/was ... about/like

e.g. what's it like 1

what was it about 7

what's he like 11

what kind of

e.g. what kind of music do you like 7

what do you think of

e.g. what do you think of the weather 1

what time

e.g. what time is breakfast 15

when

e.g. when do you (usually) get up 13

when do you want to ... 18

when is the next train 20

when will it be ready 22

where

e.g. where are you from 1

where can I ... 6

where are you speaking from 27

where do you want to go 30

where would you like to go 33

where shall we go 33

where in ... 1

which

e.g. which would you like 7

which ... is it, please 20

who

e.g. who did you want to speak to 27

who helped you when ... 32

whose

e.g. whose drink is this 4

why

e.g. why not 3

22 RELATIVE CLAUSES

restrictive

e.g. one other thing I wanted to mention 16

someone I met 30

non-restrictive

e.g. people who annoyed the king or queen 28

with adverbial

e.g. the place (where) ... 28

the time (when) ... 32

23 ADJECTIVES

attributive

e.g. a great time 1

blue skies 1

comparison

regular + good better best
bad worse worst

e.g. stronger/weaker 4

more fun 7

just as ... as 8

older/younger (than) 11

most of the (time) 11

some more vegetables 13

not so expensive 31

easier/harder (to do s.th) 31

more people 31

I'm (a lot) more ... than you are 32

not as ... as 32

the biggest piece of cake 32

demonstrative

e.g. that little café 2

this one 16

first, last next

e.g. first time 1

last drink 2

next time 3

no

e.g. there's no bus 30

no speed limit 31

own
e.g. your own room 11
possessive
e.g. our first time 1
my wife 4
predicative
e.g. angry
ill
lazy
mean
sensible
tired
upset
well

24 ADVERBS AND ADVERBIALS

ago
e.g. two years ago 3
anyway
e.g. I'll try there anyway 15
comparison
e.g. to get better 1
to go further north 3
to like s.th best 10
faster/slower 28
to stay open longer 31
to like better 31
(a bit) more thoughtful 32
(to make the most of s.th 9)
else
e.g. somewhere else 3
frequency
e.g. often
sometimes
usually
(see also non-assertive forms)
instead
e.g. could I do 8 instead 18

intensifiers
a bit
e.g. turn it down a bit 3
a bit too noisy 3
just
e.g. you can just see them 5
just round the corner 6
just follow the signs 6
just one brother 11
more or less
e.g. more or less the same everywhere 10
nearly
e.g. you nearly fell 16
only
e.g. we're only here for ... 2
I only need 5
it's only a few ... 6
quite
e.g. quite good 9
rather
e.g. rather quiet 11
really
e.g. I don't really mind 7
really awful 10
so
e.g. so hot 2
sort of
e.g. sort of heavy 14
too
e.g. too crowded 3
not too much 21
very
e.g. very beautiful 1
very much
e.g. we like the countryside very much 2

manner
e.g. fast
slowly
well

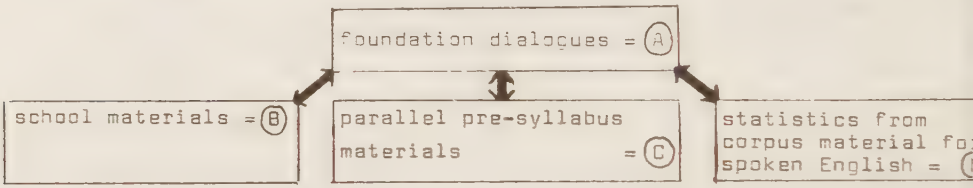
order/position
e.g. perhaps we could go there tomorrow 1
at home I only have ... 13
perhaps
e.g. perhaps we could ... 1
probably
e.g. you'll probably never ... 26
temporal sequence forms
e.g. after that
first
last
next
then
time and place

27 CONJUNCTIONS AND SUBORDINATE CLAUSES
adverbial clauses
reason with because
e.g. I suppose it's because ... 31
time with before/when/while
e.g. while she is on holiday 16
when you get to know them 31
(purpose with to
e.g. you did it to annoy me 32)
(see also if-clauses)

noun clauses
I'm afraid + n.c.
e.g. I'm afraid it's quite serious 29
..., I'm afraid 16
I expect + n.c.
e.g. I expect we'll ... 3
..., I expect 22
I'm glad/sorry + n.c.
e.g. I'm glad you like it 13
I'm sorry you don't like it 13
I hope + n.c.
e.g. I hope you have ... 2
I hope you find it 6
I hope you enjoyed ... 17
let's hope + n.c.
e.g. let's hope it stays like this 1
to know + n.c.
e.g. do you know how long ... 18
I don't know what ... means 28
perhaps + n.c.
e.g. perhaps we could go there tomorrow 1
to say + n.c.
e.g. ..., you say/said 26
you said you'd ... 32
I suppose + n.c.
e.g. I suppose school is the same everywhere 10
I'm sure + n.c.
e.g. I'm sure you'd like it 1
to tell + n.c.
e.g. did you tell C I was ... 32
the time you told C ... 32
that's what + n.c.
e.g. that's what you think 32
that's what you always say 32
I think + n.c.
e.g. I think we'll ... 3
I think I need ... 22
I think I've ... 27
do you think I could ... 30
I thought + n.c.
e.g. I thought you played football 8
I wish + n.c.
e.g. I wish I was dead 32
would you mind if + n.c.
e.g. would you mind if I had the day off 30

7. Comparisons

The central assumption of the study is that English courses in German schools do not contain the "best choice of language" for spoken communication, which has been taken throughout to mean the ability to carry on a simple conversation. In order to demonstrate that the foundation dialogues could improve the situation, it is necessary to compare them with other materials of three different kinds:


foundation dialogues = (A)
school materials = (B)
parallel pre-syllabus materials = (C)
statistics from corpus material fo
spoken English = (

One would of course wish to demonstrate that A is closer to D than either B or C. However, not all the comparisons which could be made according to the scheme above would be equally valid. The results of the comparisons which are referred to below should therefore be treated with extreme caution.

As school English courses are intended to make spoken communication possible for pupils, A-B comparisons are permissible, in spite of the fact that priorities in school are rather different (see 1.1). The objectives of the Council of Europe are very similar to those of this study (see 4.3.1), which means that direct A-C comparisons are legitimate, particularly if the Threshold Level publication for schools (VAN EK, 1977a) is used as a basis.

As an acceptable learner target language is tailored to the assumed needs and learning problems of non-native speakers, comparisons with authentic language use are bound to reveal enormous differences, not all of which can be classified as deficiencies in the learner target language. Nevertheless, the really common elements in authentic spoken language should obviously be included. Conversely, elements which are rare in authentic spoken language should not be included. Limited A-D comparisons have been made along these lines.

The availability of relevant materials for comparison varies a great deal from one kind of language element to another. The following tabular representation of the main options makes this clear:

COMPARISON	AB	AC	AD
lexical items	vocabulary section of any standard textbook series	pre-syllabus lists of lexical items	word lists based on authentic corpora
grammatical structures	lists of structures from textbook-related school grammars	pre-syllabus lists of grammatical structures	frequency lists for structures based on authentic corpora
speech functions	textbook-related lists of speech functions	pre-syllabus lists of speech functions	frequency lists for speech functions based on authentic corpora

The diagonal lines indicate that authoritative modern data is not available in these areas. Relevant work is in progress on the London-Lund corpus, the conversation part of which has already been referred to (SVARTVIK and QUIRK (eds.), 1980), but the results will not appear for some time (see SVARTVIK et al., 1982:70). No directly comparable materials at all are available for the lists of collocations and expressions with discourse function, although work on discourse functions is also being done in connection with the London-Lund corpus (personal communication, JAN SVARTVIK, 1982).

The official guidelines for German schools have deliberately been left out of account for purposes of comparison, because they apply only in their own regions. Textbooks and textbook-related lists and summaries provide a more generally valid picture of school practice. The main directly-comparable pre-syllabus materials are therefore those produced by the Council of Europe.

Comparisons were carried out in the following areas:

lexical items:	AB	AC	AD
grammatical structures:	AB	AC	(AD)
speech functions:		AC	

The AD comparison for grammatical structures is in brackets because, in the absence of a complete and up to date frequency list, it consists only of brief references to Widgorsky's article on the subject (WIDGORSKY, 1971). There is no AB comparison for speech functions because the lists in textbooks and teacher's handbooks are close to the Council of Europe lists, one of which was used as a basis for the foundation dialogue list (VAN EK and ALEXANDER, 1977:13-14). The relationship between the foundation dialogues list and the Waystage list is clearly shown in Appendix 2, so it was only necessary to illustrate the differences for the AC comparison here.

7.1 lexical comparisons

For the AB comparison, the middle edition of Good English book 3 was selected. The teacher's handbook (KLINGMANN et al., 1980) (= GE) contains the 1500 or so lexical items (excluding numbers and pronouns) which occur in the first three books of the series. The number of items is close to that in the foundation dialogues list, which also has roughly 1500 items, including pronouns.

For the AC comparison, the list in The Threshold Level for Modern Language Learning in Schools (VAN EK, 1977a) (= CE) was chosen. This list also has roughly 1500 items, some of which are intended to be optional and/or receptive. As with the foundation dialogues list (= FD), there are a number of items which vary from one individual to another, and a number of open-ended classes such as names of foreign countries.

Each of these two lists was checked against the FD list item by item. The results are summarised below.

1. The most obvious finding is that there are very considerable differences between the three lists. FD has about 400 words which are not in GE, and roughly the same number which are not in CE. GE has about 500 words which are not in FD, and CE has about 200 words (counting only those which are intended for productive use) which are not in FD. These figures represent between ten and thirty per cent of the items in each list. For example, only FD has adapter, ankle, argument, atmosphere and au pair. Only GE has babysit, badge, battlefield, beermat and bell. Only CE has cabaret, cabbage, carriage, cattle and clerk, all receptive except cattle. Random differences continue right through the alphabet, and remain considerable even when we take into account that the compilers of the three lists may in some cases have chosen different lexical items to express similar concepts, e.g FD see you (then/later), CE bye-bye (R); FD right, GE and CE correct.

2. The second main finding is that each list has its individual strengths and weaknesses when compared with the others. In the interests of clarity and economy, the following

policy has been adopted:
- As strengths for one word list correspond with weaknesses in the other two, weaknesses are not dealt with separately, except that a list of items missing in FD has been included.
- In the tables which follow, only items which are in one list but not in either of the others have been included. The AB and AC comparisons are therefore combined.
- The lists are not completely exhaustive. Only clear cases are included. The intention is to show broad tendencies.
- GE and CE are each compared with FD, but not directly with one another.
- Optional (O) and/or receptive (R) items in the CE list have only been included in the section on strengths of CE. The appropriate letter(s) follow the entries.

(As the GE list is based on the first half of a six-year course, it is very likely that a list for the later part of the course would reveal further strengths. The other two lists are both intended as "Abschlußprofile".)

FD strengths

description, opinions, feelings

atmosphere	idiot
comfortable	mean (with money)
crowded	mean (unkind)
delicious	reasonable
disappointed	selfish
to be fed up	sensible
feeling	terribly
good-looking	traditional
helpful	(to be) upset

discourse vocabulary

at last	to mention
come on	more or less
er	nearly
hey	never mind
hmm	oh dear

oh well	the other day
on the whole	stuff
or so	uhuh
so far	I wish

"modern" vocabulary

code	Ms.
disco	rock (music)
hamburger	smog
Inter-City	stereo
LP	teenager

practical/technical vocabulary

adapter	pliers
diesel	to plug s.th in
dishwasher	(sparking) plugs
drawer	saw (tool)
exhaust	scissors
fan belt	screw
freezer	screwdriver
hair dryer	shaving stuff
indicators	slide (photographic)
kettle	spanner
nail	tin/can opener
nut (engineering)	tool
paper handkerchiefs	tray
pin	umbrella
plasters	

sport

free-kick	to go sailing
gymshoes	to serve (tennis)
to keep fit	to ski
racket	to go skiing
to sail	tennis court

tourism/shopping/food and drink

autobahn
(wash-)basin
cafeteria
carrot
cathedral
china
cotton
credit card
custard
design
double room
exchange rate
flour
gin
grapefruit
gravy
grilled
to head for
to hire s.th
jewellery
lager
make-up
necklace
over here
to pack
picnic
reception
receptionist
roast
schnapps
schnitzel
self-service
shampoo
sherry
to sign
single room
sleeping bag
speed limit
starter (restaurant)
steak
sun oil
swimming pool
synthetics
tower
vase

miscellaneous

argument
au pair
bush
carpet
civil servant
clock
construction worker
executive
extra
fault
flu
foreman
to hit
housewife
jazz
junction
to knit
knitting
lawn
Madam
musical instrument
nature (film)

nightdress	spider
pet	steep
piano	step
properly	thumb
pyjamas	tights
salesperson	truck
science	wallpaper
to share	wall unit
sideboard	wasp
Sir	weak
skin	X-ray

in GE and CE, but not in FD

(Brief notes are added on equivalents/reasons for omission.)

able to	(can/could included)
to agree	(covered by yes, all right etc.)
to allow	(covered by can/could)
almost	(nearly included)
baker	(traditional shops not included)
bookcase	((book)shelf/shelves included)
butcher	(see baker)
dear...	(written form only)
to earn	(covered by collocations with pay)
to fail	(covered by not pass)
finally	(at last, then included)
(green)grocer	(see baker)
to hate	(element of risk for non-natives)
hobby	(leisure activity covers more)
to kill	(dead included)
lamp	(light more general)
lesson	(limited to school - class/course included)
member	(club included)
necessary	(to need s.th included)
peace	(outside range of FD)
possible	(covered by can/could)
to prefer	(I'd rather/to like best/better included)
railway	(station and to go by train included)
reason	(covered by why/because)
to shine	(sunny included)
soldier	(army included)

spare time	(leisure included)
speed	(fast included)
strange	(some senses covered by funny)
term	(mainly school - university students above FD level)
thief	(has been stolen included)
thunderstorm	(specialised - storm included)
tobacco	(cigarette included)
tobacconist	(see baker)
to visit	(to go and see s.o./s.th included)

GE strengths

literary

ant-heap	kingdom
battlefield	knight
bear	majestic
cargo	pistol
cheetah	radio-controlled
to defeat	robber
to dig	stowaway
dining hall	trumpet
horseback	unconscious
inventor	to whisper

school

chalk	pupil
felt-pen	rubber
folder	schoolbag
fountain pen	school uniform
pencil-case	schoolyard
penfriend	staff
prayers	staffroom
prefect	

CE strengths

business etc.

clerk (R)
currency (OR)
document (OR)
embassy (OR)
immigration (OR)
institute (R)
interview (R)
law (R)
occupation (OR)
old-age pension (OR)
regulations (OR)
salary (R)
social security (OR)
third-party (O)
town-hall (R)
working hours (R)

entertainment

actor/actress
cabaret (R)
concert hall (R)
exhibition (OR)
floor show (OR)
interval (R)
matinée (OR)
night-club (O)
opera
opera-house (R)
painting (R)
performance (OR)
revue (OR)
stage (R)

politics

communist (O)
conservative (O)
left-wing (OR)
minister
party (political)
political
politics
right-wing (OR)
socialist (O)
state

These lists are largely self-explanatory. The 170+ items which are in FD but not in the other lists provide evidence for the claim that the dialogues cover everyday situations better than other comparable materials. The FD list emerges as unique in its coverage of tools, slightly more modern than the other lists in some ways, and it takes German culture into account in a very modest way. It is also slightly more feminist than the other lists. The FD list is idiosyncratic in not including traditional shops (because they are easily recognizable in any ordinary shopping street without the need to mention them by name), and in "getting round" a small number of standard items such as able to, to allow, necessary, to prefer and possible. The reasons for avoiding these items are either the wish to

reduce the amount of structural material (able to, allow), or to avoid slightly formal items (necessary, possible, to prefer). To visit is also slightly formal in some contexts, and it presents German learners with the visit/attend problem. The strength of GE in literary vocabulary is perfectly understandable and justifiable in a course which regards fictional texts for motivation as very important. School vocabulary was of course to be expected in a school textbook. The CE list for schools, on the other hand, was not particularly strong in this area. The special features which did emerge should not be given very much weight because they depend so heavily on optional and/or receptive items. Nevertheless, the coverage of entertainment is perhaps rather too detailed.

Two sources were used for AD comparisons. The first of these was the list of the 100 most frequent words in the London-Lund corpus. This list is reproduced below. The two sets of figures are the rankings in the whole corpus, and in the conversational part of it (SVARTVIK and QUIRK, 1980). All three lists referred to in the previous section contained all the items except those shown in phonetic symbols.

THE 100 MOST FREQUENT WORDS IN THE LONDON-LUND CORPUS

the	1	2	be	21	28	if	41	48
and	2	3	know	22	15	are	42	49
I	3	1	we	23	29	which	43	55
to	4	4	they	24	19	or	44	47
of	5	6	it's	25	21	[m]	45	31
a	6	7	at	26	33	yeah	46	50
you	7	5	[ə:m]	27	22	oh	47	43
that	8	10	think	28	25	don't	48	39
in	9	9	as	29	40	got	49	45
it	10	8	so	30	24	see	50	45
is	11	13	no	31	25	now	51	68
yes	12	11	with	32	42	just	52	54
was	13	12	all	33	29	from	53	69
this	14	17	very	34	35	would	54	51
but	15	16	not	35	38	had	55	57
on	16	20	one	36	36	because	56	58
well	17	14	what	37	32	I'm	57	56
he	18	18	there	38	41	my	58	66
have	19	23	about	39	37	she	59	72
for	20	27	do	40	34	mean	60	44

up	61	63	[əm]	75	74	thing	88	78
that's	62	53	said	76	60	him	89	91
then	63	61	them	77	73	some	90	86
were	64	69	really	78	59	quite	91	81
by	65	99	sort	79	52	much	91	89
me	66	67	people	80	71	your	93	103
when	67	64	an	81	76	has	94	106
been	68	78	two	81	91	I've	95	82
out	69	75	who	83	93	her	96	113
can	70	76	time	84	87	more	97	97
like	71	62	his	85	94	did	98	90
going	72	80	go	86	83	[ði:]	99	122
right	73	97	say	87	88	he's	100	84
get	74	64						

(SVARTVIK et al., 1982:43-46)

The FD, GE and CE lists were also checked against the 275 items occurring more than 100 times in the Howes corpus (HOWES, 1966). The table below only includes items not covered in one or more of the three lists. (People occurs 689 times in the Howes corpus. The form persons, which is often taught in German schools, only twice.)

	FD	GE	CE
actually	-	-	-
believe	-	+	+
couple	+	+	-
dollar	+	-	-
ever	+	-	+
fact	-	-	-
guess	-	-	-
guy	-	-	-
kid	-	+	-
kind (of)	+	+	-
life	+	+	-
maybe	-	-	-
might	-	+	+
oh	+	-	-
pretty	+	+	-
probably	+	+	-
really	+	+	-
should	+	-	+
(al)though	-	+	-

	FD	GE	CE	
Uhuh	+	-	-	
used to*	(+)	-	-	
well (filler)	+	+	-	
while (noun,conj.)	-	+	(+)	(conj. only)
yeah	-	-	-	

(*almost certainly covers both to get used to s.th and used to do s.th - see the note on used to in Schonell's material in 4.1.4)

As the computer statistics give no clues as to usage, assumptions had to be made in the case of kind, used to, well and while. We can take it that dollar, guess, guy, maybe and yeah are unlikely to rank very high in written versions of spoken British English (yeah of course occurs frequently in authentic spoken BE; see item 46/50 on the London-Lund list above). This leaves 19 items. FD and GE both cover well over 60% of the items not in all three lists, CE less than 30%.

For the sake of interest, the items from the Howes list were also checked against Haase's popular older reference work, the Englisches Arbeitswörterbuch (HAASE, 1963(1959). Actually, guy, maybe, uhuh, well (filler) and yeah are not covered at all, hardly surprising in some cases. The other items were all in class 1 (first thousand) except for the following: couple (3), fact (2), guess (2), kid (child) (4) and used to (2).

If we accept that really common words in authentic English conversation should also be taught to second language learners, FD and GE are better than CE. Some of the omissions can probably be put down to the wishes of authors and compilers to avoid structural problems (e.g. might (FD), used to), a feeling that some common expressions are too "advanced" or "for natives only" (e.g. actually, in fact), or an unawareness of the importance of fillers (e.g. well (CE)). It is perfectly legitimate to omit material for the first two reasons.

7.2 Structural comparisons

For the AB comparison, a school grammar for the "middle" school forms in Germany ("Realschulen" and comprehensives) has been chosen. It is the grammar for the B edition of the widely-used English G series (FLEISCHHACK, 1978)(= G). This grammar is intended for classes 7 and 8 (3-4 years of English).

For the AC comparison the school edition of The Threshold Level (VAN EK 1977a)(= CE) was again consulted. The AB and AC comparisons are combined as before. The AD comparison consists of indicating structures which are common (more than 2%) according to Widgorsky's survey (WIDGORSKY, 1971)(= W). The absence of a star (*) opposite verbal groups indicates that they are relatively rare in spoken English.

All this information is contained in a single table. The order followed is that of the alphabetical register in CE. What is considered as "grammar" varies from one list to another. Countable nouns, for example, are only mentioned in CE, but they would inevitably occur in the other two systems as well. Items of this kind are only mentioned in cases where inclusion in another kind of register would be highly unlikely. Receptive structures in CE are indicated as follows: (+R) A plus sign in brackets (+) in the FD column indicates that this structure only occurs in a very limited number of collocations.

structure	CE	FD	G	W	notes
comparison of adjectives and adverbs, full range with irregular forms	+	-	+		(the least, the most not in FD, to make the most of s.th included)
(not) as ... as	(+R)	+	+		
too ... to	+	-	-		
the ... the ...	-	-	+		
clauses					
conditional with present prog., present perfect, simple past, could, would, might and past perfect	-	-	+	*	(the star is for the verbal group, not necessarily for the use of these kinds of conditional clauses)

structure	CE	FD	G	W	notes
(clauses contd.)					
purpose with inf. or in order to	(+R)	(+)	-		(FD has to do s.th to ... s.o./s.th)
relative with where/ when (= at which)	-	+	-		
each	+	-	+		
future with going to	+	-	+		
future with simple pres.	(+R)	+	+		
future progressive	-	-	+		
future perfect	-	-	+		
gerund as subject	(+R)	-	+		
gerund after verb/noun + preposition	-	-	+		(e.g. give up doing difficulty in finding)
gerund after mind	(+R)	-	+		
how/what about + noun	(+R)	+	+		
how/what about + -ing	(+R)	-	-		
inchoative verbs					
to become	+	-	+		
to fall (ill)	(+R)	-	-		(CE also covers to get (old))
indirect speech with tense changes etc.	+	-	+		(FD only has you say you... and you said you'd...)
with question words	+	-	+		
with modals	-	-	+		
infinitives					
after questions words	-	+	+		(e.g. I can't see where to put it)
after superlatives etc.	-	-	+		(e.g. the first to do s.th)
after nouns	-	-	+		(e.g. he's the man to help you)
after for + noun	-	-	+		(e.g. an easy thing for a boy to do)
after certain verbs + for	-	-	+		(e.g. to wait for s.o. to arrive)
after verbs of perception	-	-	+		(e.g. to hear s.th break)

structure	CE	FD	G	W	notes
interrogatives					
negative questions with auxiliaries	+	-	+		
with doesn't/don't	+	+	-		
what is ... about?	-	+	-		
what kind of ...?	-	+	+		
made of ...	+	+	-		
modal auxiliaries					
able to	(+R)	-	+		(CE gives will be able to as productive)
allowed to	+	-	+		
had better	-	+	+		
have got to	-	-	+		
to have to	+	+	-		
may (permission)	+	(+)	(+)		(in FD only may I introduce ...)
may (possibility)	+	-	-		
might	+	-	+		
must (compulsion)	(+R)	(+)	+		(CE gives mustn't and future ref. as prod.)
must (deduction)	+	-	-		(e.g. she must be Swedish)
need	(+R)	-	+		(in FD as full verb only)
ought to	(+R)	-	+		
passive				*	(only pres. prog.)
present, past, present perfect, future and with modals	(+R)	(+)	+		(FD only has a few collocations, e.g. was born, has been cancelled/stolen)
with by	(+R)	-	+		
with past prog. and past perfect	-	-	+		
indirect obj. to passive subject	(+R)	-	+		(e.g. John was given a book)
past perfect tense with after, before, when	+	-	+	*	
in conditional sentences	-	-	+		
past perfect prog.	-	-	+		
perfect infinitive after might, would	-	-	+		(e.g. might have happened)

structure	CE	FD	G	W	notes
present participle after a noun	-	-	+		(e.g. the boy wearing the red tie)
after verbs of perception	-	-	+		(e.g. to see s.o. doing s.th)
reflexive pronouns	+	(+)	+		(FD only has a few collocations, e.g. help yourself, to hurt my/yourself, to get to know each oth
semi-copula	+	+	-		(e.g. to look nice, to feel happy) (This structure is covered in book 6B of the G series)
short answers and tags as comment	-	+	-	*	(e.g. A: I like it. B: Do you?)
want/would like s.o. to do s.th	-	-	+		
while as conjunction	(+R)	+	+		

Again the results are on the whole self-explanatory. The most striking feature of the comparison is undoubtedly the massive coverage of "classic school grammar" in G, when compared with either CE or FD. These structures must be considered as luxury items since they are neither common in the language of native speakers, nor necessary for the production of acceptable English by non-native speakers. Perhaps the structural frequency statistics for the London-Lund corpus will eventually convince teachers that this kind of grammar is not necessary when they are published. The cautious treatment of the "high-risk" modal must in CE and FD is in contrast to its inclusion as a full structure in G.

The logic behind some of CE's (R) designations is questionable (e.g. future expressed by simple present, how/what about + noun, while as a conjunction). The omission of some clearly useful structures is also hard to understand (e.g. what is ... about, what kind of ..., had better).

The reduction of the structural inventory is most radical in FD (e.g. each, going to future, to become, indirect speech,

past perfect tense). These omissions emerge from the comparison with CE. Compared with G this list would of course be much longer.

7.3 Functional comparisons

The list of speech functions in Waystage (VAN EK and ALEXANDER, 1977), was used extensively during work on the foundation dialogues. It provided a very good basis for the FD list of speech functions, but it was necessary to add a limited number of functions which were not covered (see Appendix 2). Each of the additional functions is given below, with an example or examples from the dialogues. Underlinings indicate an extension of a function already included in the Waystage list.

1.5 giving or asking for reasons
e.g. Why not?

1.6 saying or asking if one has/has not done something
e.g. Have you been here before?
No, it's our first time.

1.7 expressing or asking about a possibility, probability, estimate or condition
e.g. You could still have some trouble with it.
Could I ... instead?

1.8 saying yes or no
e.g. (Are you enjoying your holiday?)
Yes, thank you.

2.10 expressing one is/is not obliged to do something/needs or does not need something
e.g. You'll only need ...

2.11 inquiring whether one is obliged to do something/needs something
e.g. What do you need?

2.14 inquiring about/expressing importance or seriousness
e.g. Is it serious?

2.15 inquiring/checking/expressing if something is true or correct
e.g. You're the visitor from ..., aren't you?

2.16 checking or indicating (lack of) comprehension
e.g. Have you got it now?
I don't understand (it).

3.1 expressing pleasure, liking, interest
e.g. I'm very interested in ...

3.7 expressing or inquiring about preference
e.g. What's your favourite ...

3.8 expressing or accepting gratitude
e.g. Thanks for the tip.

3.13 expressing neutral attitudes
e.g. Well, it's all right.

3.14 expressing empathy
e.g. You'd like ...

3.15 expressing sympathy
e.g. I'm sorry to hear that.

3.16 calming someone down, cheering someone up
e.g. Don't worry.
Never mind.

3.17 inquiring about or expressing an opinion
e.g. Do you think ...
It's marvellous.

3.18 making an excuse
e.g. I couldn't find (my car key).
I didn't think.

4.3 expressing approval or disapproval
e.g. I think that's really unfair.

5.4 offering or refusing assistance
e.g. It's all right, thanks. I can manage.

5.7 requesting or giving advice
e.g. Try and make the most of ...

5.8 requesting or giving help with language problems
e.g. Could you say that again.

6.7 paying or accepting a compliment
e.g. I like the/your ... very much.
I'm glad you like it.

6.8 expressing (good) wishes
e.g. I hope you have a good trip home.

The fact that these additions were necessary shows that the approach via a corpus of didactic dialogues covers a wider spectrum of language use than the Council of Europe's approach.

7.4 Results and implications

There are quite large differences in the selections of lexical material, probably beginning round the 1000-word mark. These findings suggest that there is no such thing as a general vocabulary above a level so basic as to be of very little value in practice. If we accept that everyday situations are the right specific subject matter for first English courses. FD is stronger than the other materials consulted. The textbooks may of course make up ground by the end of a five- or six-year course.

All three modern lists referred to are likely to be more reliable than older lists based on written English as a guide to the choice of vocabulary for basic conversation. However, only FD treats collocations as a second type of vocabulary with equal status to standard lexical items. There is no longer any doubt that this kind of lexical material plays a very important role in conversation. Collocations cannot be dealt with on a comparative basis at present.

The structural comparisons reveal quite clearly that the "ladder" approach to learning grammar is far from dead, at least in schools for more able pupils. This "ladder" makes English unnecessarily difficult without a corresponding gain in usefulness. Pupils who spend a great deal of time learning rare structures are unlikely to have the really common structures at their fingertips. The emphasis is on form rather than function, on covering as much of the system as possible rather than asking which parts of it are really useful.

The functional comparison between two closely-related pre-syllabus lists demonstrates that even constructed didactic dialogues require a wider range of speech functions than was foreseen in the Council of Europe's attempt to predict needs in the abstract.

The need for reliable lexical, structural, functional and discourse-orientated lists based on modern spoken and informal written English is clear. Such lists could not be adopted wholesale for pre-syllabus specifications and

modern language courses, but they would provide invaluable guidance, and might in the long run help to change teacher perceptions of what "English" should consist of in school.

8. Conclusions

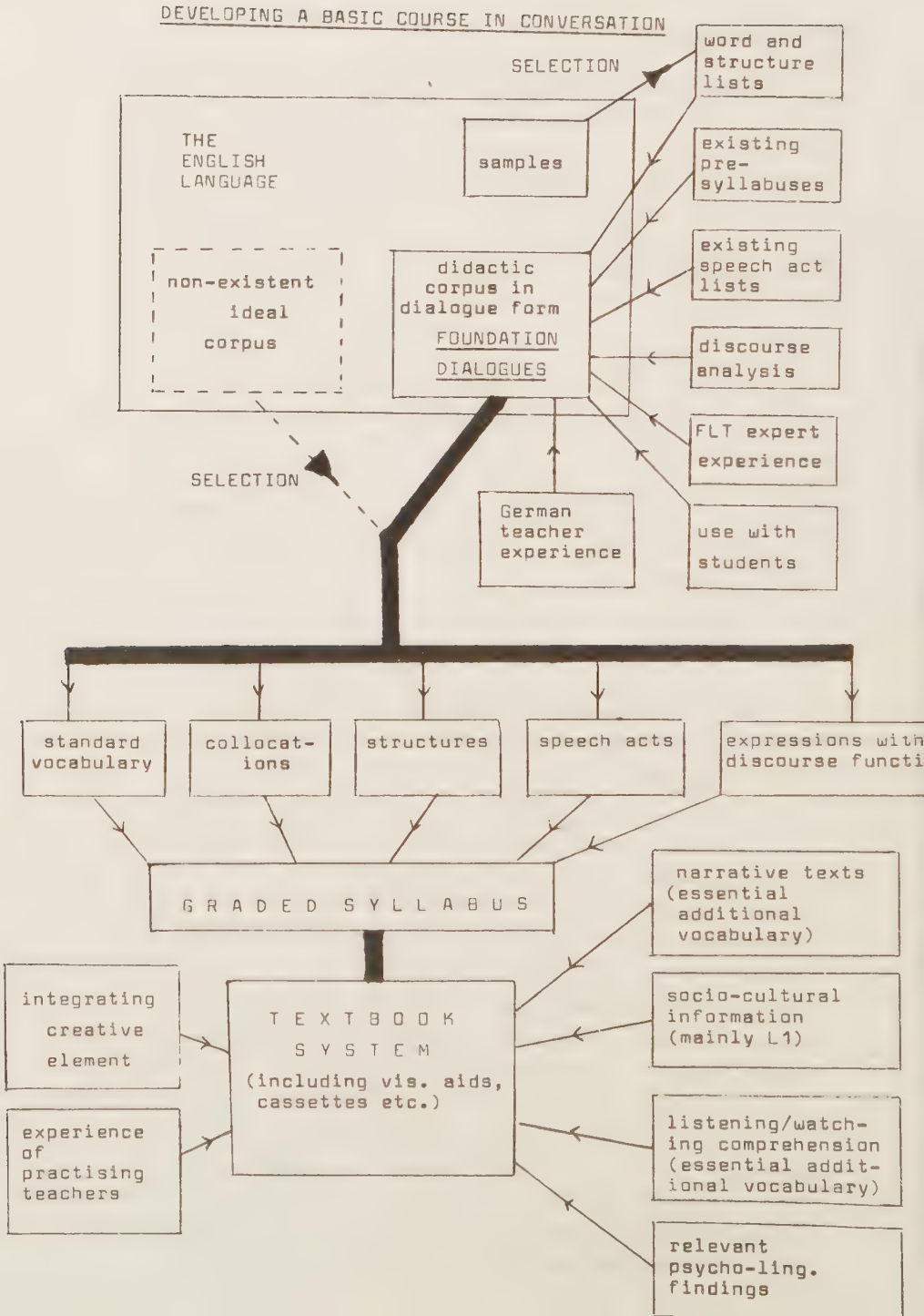
8.1 The problem and the attempted solution

Choosing the most suitable language material for first English courses is a very complex process. The reason for questioning the present choices was the strong feeling, based mainly on personal experience, that in all school forms in Germany, the tremendous effort expended on English does not as a rule enable ordinary pupils to "speak English" in the sense that the man in the street would understand this expression. It is not intended to imply that the FLT situation in Germany is worse than in other countries. On the contrary, in the author's experience "German English" is far better on average than "English French", for example. We are dealing with a general problem of school second language learning: "Every year millions of people start learning a second language, but very few succeed in mastering it." (MACKEY, 1965:107)

It is quite possible that other factors may play a far greater role in successful language learning than the nature of the learner target language, but if the choice of language elements is unsuitable, even the most gifted teacher with the most able and highly-motivated class imaginable cannot achieve satisfactory results.

The double assumption has been made in this study that the first and most important productive objective for ordinary learners should be the ability to carry on a simple conversation, and that the selection of language taught at present is in some respects "off target" for the achievement of this objective.

Reasons for this state of affairs were sought in the history of language selection, and in the history of spoken English as an objective. In order to avoid the abstraction of uncontextualised lists on the one hand, and the inevitable conservatism of standard textbooks on the other, dialogues were written at a pre-syllabus level. The development of these dialogues, and their possible function in the planning of English courses are summarised in the diagram on the following page.


DEVELOPING A BASIC COURSE IN CONVERSATION
SELECTION
word and structure lists
THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE
samples
existing pre-syllabuses
existing speech act lists
non-existent ideal corpus
didactic corpus in dialogue form
FOUNDATION DIALOGUES
discourse analysis
FLT expert experience
SELECTION
German teacher experience
use with students
standard vocabulary
collocat-ions
structures
speech acts
expressions with discourse functi
GRADED SYLLABUS
narrative texts (essential additional vocabulary)
integrating creative element
TEXTBOOK SYSTEM
(including vis. aids, cassettes etc.)
socio-cultural information (mainly L1)
experience of practising teachers
listening/watch-ing comprehension (essential addit-ional vocabulary)
relevant psycho-ling. findings

From a scientific point of view this model inevitably has deficiencies. Some of the information required to make it reliable is simply not available at present (e.g. authoritative lists of discourse functions or modern frequency lists for grammatical structures in spoken English). Other information is only partly relevant. Authentic native speaker conversation is in many ways not an appropriate model for non-native speaker conversation, hence the non-existent ideal corpus which is shown in the diagram. It would have to consist of authentic but also error-free non-native speaker conversation in everyday situations.

A further deficiency is that a single compiler wrote the didactic corpus, and was responsible for deciding which of the changes suggested by the various groups of informants were actually made. There is no way in which a didactic corpus of this kind can ever be "perfect" or "complete". On the other hand, the willingness of native speakers and German teachers to suggest improvements within the framework of the dialogues implies that they felt it was possible to get the material "right" in some important sense which goes beyond mere linguistic acceptability. The FLT experts in particular were trying to decide whether the situations were adequately covered, as well as judging the acceptability of the language.

It is too much to hope that any two judges would ever agree entirely on what to include, but it can nevertheless be claimed that the final version of the foundation dialogues as printed in 6.1 above represents a consensus of opinion on what should be included in dialogues for conversation in everyday situations in the early 1980's. It is not suggested that the language of the dialogues is entirely typical. A slightly different consensus would no doubt have been reached from a different starting point.

The didactic dialogue corpus is a flexible and relatively comprehensive form, which made it possible for all the factors listed on the right of the diagram to be taken into account. This "taking into account" will again not

satisfy scholars because it involves weighing up the factors for and against a particular item, and eventually making a decision which remains partly subjective, even when a number of different viewpoints have been considered.

The fact that so many different factors can be considered and integrated into the model in some form is also one of its strengths. The justification for the attempt is that quite significant differences emerge when the foundation dialogues are compared with other similar materials. The most striking differences are:

- the large number of collocations
- the relatively small structural inventory
- the inclusion of discourse material.

8.2 Omissions and limitations

The foundation dialogues are intended to provide productive material for first English courses only. The approach is "common core", and cannot by definition take variations depending on age, sex or social class into account, except in an extremely rudimentary way. Classroom English, signs and letter-writing have also been deliberately excluded in order to concentrate fully on the central objective.

Criticism of the dialogues on the grounds that their subject matter is essentially trivial would not be justified. "Landeskunde" and fictional texts are the clear responsibility of textbook authors in this model. There is no implied limitation of content. In any case, triviality of content is not the same thing as triviality of function. If mastering this kind of material really does enable a language learner to make English-speaking friends, go shopping and order a meal etc. successfully in an English-speaking country, then a widening of horizons will have been achieved which is not trivial. Few pupils in school or students in evening classes would be dissatisfied if they genuinely achieved objectives of this kind. The question of confidence is also important. Students who believe that they have been well-prepared for everyday situations are more likely to try and find opportunities to use their second language.

The majority of learners will never graduate to English literature, or acquire a real understanding of British or American institutions, or be able to read a "serious" English language newspaper. It is questionable, in any case, whether non-native speakers using English as a lingua franca really need a great deal of background information about Britain or America. They do need specialised vocabulary for the main topic of their conversation, the ability to get their viewpoint across in spite of linguistic handicaps, and the kind of creative flexibility which will enable them to make the best possible use of a limited repertoire (see BENEKE, 1979b). This is the province of ESP courses, and advanced courses

In general spoken English. Before they get down to business, however, they will need to greet one another, inquire about one another's families, and generally pass the time of day. Here a course based on the dialogues could help them.

The dialogues provide a suitable classroom target language for those who have no need or wish to be integrated into the target language society. Although the system is not a closed one, any attempt to introduce ultimate objectives for second language teaching below native-like mastery is likely to be viewed with suspicion:

"Infolgedessen hat das Ziel 'Sprachbeherrschung' einen Inhalt, den jeder Lernende aufgrund seiner gegebenen Sprachlichkeit individuell präzisieren kann: 'die fremde Sprache zur Verfügung haben wie die Muttersprache'. So etwas gibt es aus der Logik der Sache heraus in keinem anderen Unterrichtsfach. Daß dieses uralte und weltweit gültige Ziel des Fremdsprachenunterrichts so schwer zu erreichen ist und fast nie erreicht wird, ändert nichts daran, daß es für jeden Lernenden konkret ist, keine wirklichen Alternativen zuläßt (nur Einschränkungen), allerdings auch die Defizite jeweils schmerzlich markiert."

(MÜLLER, 1979:137)

The view put forward here is that we should accept deficits as inevitable, and concentrate our attention in first English courses on trying to reduce them to a minimum within a limited area of language use. The results could well be more useful for learners, and more acceptable to native speakers, than the English spoken by students who have been learning English for an extended period with little awareness of needs and priorities.

An effective answer to the charge that work on a course related to the foundation dialogues would produce speakers who could only perform adequately within the confines of their "little language" (NEMSER, 1971:118), might be to ask in return how useful what students learn at present is likely to be in the real world outside school.

8.3 Consequences

In a long course which has as its eventual objective native-like mastery of a second language, it may not appear to matter very much if some basic objectives are in practice always "left until later". However, if we accept that even specialist foreign language students do not as a rule "pick up" the ability to converse very well, and that non-specialists are left stranded somewhere along the way, the arguments in favour of a first course in basic conversation for all are surely convincing.

An examination of the lists which accompany the foundation dialogues (see 6 above) makes it clear that a number of changes would be necessary in first English courses (the term is used here to cover approximately the first three years of English):

- a relatively large number of single lexical items would be taught, grouped in word fields wherever possible.
- a large number of collocations would be taught as a second kind of vocabulary in their own right.
- structures such as noun clauses, intensifiers and non-assertive forms would be taught systematically.
- a limited range of tenses would be taught.
- there would be no attempt to teach a complete structure if it occurred only in collocations (e.g. must, the passive - see 6.4 above).
- there would be greater emphasis on the importance and wide range of application of structure words such as could and would.
- speech and discourse functions would be taught from the beginning.
- information would be given about the structures, topics, and principles of conversation, and on finding the right fillers for the right slots.

The quantity of speech material to be learnt would be broadly comparable with what is learnt at present. The relevance of this material for language use outside school would be greater.

This study has concentrated on materials for speech production, although it is implied throughout that conversation is essentially a reciprocal activity, which can only function if both productive and parallel receptive skills are taught. The problem of developing suitable exercise forms would have to be solved at the course level, and not at the pre-syllabus level.

A greater awareness among teachers of the differences between "producing English sentences", "practising speech functions" and "taking part in a conversation" would help to produce a climate in which the by no means revolutionary changes suggested above could take place.

Appendix 1

Conversation exercises

The exercises below are intended to raise awareness of the nature of conversation in a form which would not be too complex for pupils who have been learning English for three years or more. The first exercise deals with phatic communion at the start of a conversation between strangers (cf. Malinowski quoted by Quirk in QUIRK, 1962:58):

LET'S TALK

Getting into a conversation

On the River Rhine

A German girl meets a girl from America on a Rhine steamer.

German girl: These castles are beautiful, aren't they?
American girl: They really are.
German girl: Are you enjoying your trip?
American girl: Oh yes, it's great. Er – could I ask you something?
German girl: Of course. Go ahead. I noticed that you were having a bit of trouble just now.
American girl: Well, I was. I wanted a timetable for this steamer, but I didn't know the German word for it.
German girl: It's *Fahrplan*, but it doesn't matter. I've got one here. Let's have a look at it.

You want to talk to someone you don't know. You could say:

Excuse me, could I ask you something?
I wonder if you could help me.
Hello. Isn't it nice here? Are you enjoying the trip? . . . your visit?
Excuse me. I noticed that you were having a bit of trouble.
Is there anything I can do to help?

Now try it yourself.

You see a girl at the station who seems to be lost, and you decide that you would like to help. There's an American flag on her rucksack.

You: Excuse me. I noticed .....
Girl: Well, a friend said she would meet me here, but she didn't come.
You: (address?) .....
Girl: Well, the name is *Frau Becker*. She lives in a road called the *Grafenstraße*.
You: (telephone?) .....
Girl: Yes, I think so. But I've never used a public telephone in Germany.
You: .....
Girl: Oh, thank you. That's very kind of you.

Try to make up little dialogues

with a student who is new in your class.
with someone who needs help.
with someone who is lost.

(from: Good English 5, Allgemeine Ausgabe, FRANZEN et al., 1979:23)

The following exercise would help pupils to remember that yes-no answers will kill any ordinary conversation, and prepare them for their "maintenance" responsibilities:

Keep it going

When you are talking to someone, you should always try to say more than just *yes* or *no*. A very short answer doesn't sound very polite, and it will usually kill the conversation.

Try to help Mr Benson in the dialogue belo
You can add short answers (Yes, it is. No,
didn't, etc.) Then try to say something else
keep the conversation going.

Mr Alexander and Mr Benson have met on holiday.

Mr A: Isn't it a lovely day today?

Mr B: Yes, _____

Mr A: We went straight down to the beach after breakfast. Did you?

Mr B: No, _____

Mr A: Have you found anywhere nice to eat yet?

Mr B: Yes, _____

Mr A: Did you go to the market yesterday?

Mr B: Yes, _____

_____

Mr A: Is your room all right?

Mr B: No, _____

Mr A: Oh dear, I am sorry. Did you arrive on Saturday?

Mr B: No, _____

Mr A: Are you here with your family?

Mr B: Yes, _____

Mr A: Are you going into town this afternoon?

Mr B: Yes, _____

Mr A: We'll look out for you in town then. Goodbye for now.

(from: Good English 5, Allgemeine Ausgabe, Workbook. FRANZEN et al., 1980:18)

The longer dialogue below is an attempt to make pupils aware of the tricky socio-linguistic problems which can arise on a first visit:

STAYING WITH AN ENGLISH FAMILY

When you meet people from another country for the first time – it is always best to be specially polite.

Petra Schreiber has just arrived in London to stay with the Harper family for a few weeks. Her pen-pal, Angela Harper, and her father meet Petra at Victoria Station.

Mr Harper: Just let me put your case in the car for you, Petra. There!
Petra: Thank you.
Mr Harper: (drives off) What kind of crossing did you have?
Petra: Oh, it was quite nice. I was up on deck most of the time.
Mr Harper: I'm glad you had a good trip.
Angela: Oh, we're just going round Hyde Park Corner. Has your English teacher mentioned it?
Petra: No, I don't think so. There's a lot of traffic, isn't there?
Mr Harper: There certainly is – specially at this time of day. Just look at those taxis.
Angela: Look, Petra. There's Oxford Street.
Petra: Oh yes, there was a picture of Oxford Street in our English book. Do you go shopping there?
Angela: No, that's where all the tourists go.
Petra: It's funny, driving on the left.
Mr Harper: I thought it was funny, driving on the right.
Angela: You'll soon get used to it.

Petra is very polite, isn't she?
How does she do it?
Well, she keeps to some simple rules:

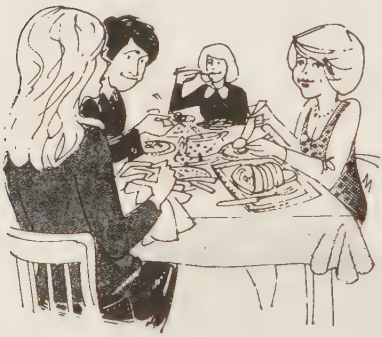
- She tries to avoid straight yes/no answers.
- She adds further remarks to show that she is interested.
- She tries to keep the conversation going.

Can you find examples? Do Angela and her father keep to these rules, too?

What would Petra say?
Try to complete the two dialogues.

Mrs Harper: The third bedroom is very small. Do you think you'll manage?
Petra: . . .
Mrs Harper: You can put your things in these drawers – and there are four or five hangers in the wardrobe for you. I'm afraid there are some of our clothes in there, too.

Petra: ...
Mrs Harper: Have you got a room of your own at home?
Petra: ...
Mrs Harper: That sounds nice. We're going to have something to eat in a minute. I expect you're very hungry after the long journey.
Petra: ...
Mrs Harper: That's what I like to hear. Oh, the bathroom is over there, by the way. If there's anything you need, just call Angela. I must go and get the meat out of the oven.



Mr Harper: Do you know what you've just eaten, Petra?
Petra: ...
Mr Harper: That's right. But you didn't mention the Yorkshire pudding. I expect it was new for you. Did you like it?
Petra: ...
Mrs Harper: Would you like a second helping?
Petra ...
Angela: What's for pudding, Mum?
Mrs Harper: Apple pie and custard. Do you have apple pie in Germany?
Petra: ... ("Apfelstrudel", apple cake)
Mrs Harper: Well, if you like that, I'm sure you'll like my apple pie.

If you want to say 'no' – you have to be twice as polite!

Not like this:

A: Did you like the meal? We think it's delicious.
B: Well, it was new for me.

But like this:

A: Did you like the meal? We think it's delicious.
B: It's so nice to try something new.

Say 'no', but do it as nicely as possible.
Someone says to you:

- Would you like some more pudding?
- Shall I wake you at six for breakfast?
- Would you like to go out with a friend of Angela's this evening?
- Do you think you could babysit for a few hours this evening?
- Would you like to give a little talk about Germany at the wives' club?
- We usually take visitors round the local history museum. Shall we go tomorrow afternoon?
- Could you help one of Angela's friends with her German homework? It'll only take two or three evenings.

(from: Good English 6, Große Ausgabe RS. KLINGMANN et al., 1980, 15-16)

It is equally important to provide pupils with practice in giving appropriate "distress signals", which show that they are having trouble with the language (cf.BENEKE, 1975: 360-361).

Let's talk.

1. **You don't understand something.**

a) *An English lady and a German lady meet at Dover.*
A: Marvellous weather, don't you think?
B: What does marvellous mean, please?
A: Well, you know, nice and sunny.
It's the sortofdaywhenyoujustwanttolieinthesun.
B: Could you say that a bit more slowly, please?
A: It's the sort of day when you [redacted] lie in the sun.
B: Pardon?
A: Look, it's a nice day, all right?
B: Yes, it is.

b) What can you say?
You are talking to an Englishman.
You can't understand what he says.
– You can **always** say: Pardon?
Sorry?
Sorry, I didn't understand that.
You can't understand him because he is speaking too fast.
– You can say: Could you say that a bit more **slowly**?
There is one word you don't know.
– You can say: What does '...' mean, please?

c) What would you say?
A German is talking to an Englishman at Liverpool Street Station.
A: Excuse me, please. Do you know where the boat train comes in?
B: Ishouldaskthatmaninuniform.
A: .....
B: Ask that man over there. I'm sure he can help you.
A: (*goes over to the man in uniform*)
Which platform is it for the Harwich boat train, please?
C: *(A train comes in. There's a lot of noise.)* [redacted]
A: .....
C. Platform 6, but there'll be a delay of about twenty minutes.
A: .....
C: It means the train will be late.
A: .....
C: That's all right. But I don't work here. I'm a pilot.

(from: Good English 3, Große Ausgabe RS KLINGMANN et al., 1977:33)

8.

What would you say?

You have an English penfriend staying with y
You want to find out if he is enjoying his s

For pupils who have been suitably taught, the German stimulus should "trigger off" appropriate English slot-fillers in the conversation.

Du möchtest wissen, ob es ihm bisher gefallen hat.

You: _____

Friend: Yes, thank you. Everything is fine.

Du erkundigst dich, ob es irgendetwas gibt, was er tun oder sehen möchte.

You: _____

Friend: Well, I would like to see the Rhine. I've heard so m about it.

Vielleicht wird dein Vater mit der ganzen Familie am nächsten Wochenende dorthin fahren.

You: _____

_____

Friend: Oh, that would be great. Thanks.

Du hast bemerkt, daß dein Freund nicht viel ißt. Du fragst ihn deshalb, ob er das deutsche Essen nicht mag.

You: _____

_____

Friend: Well, some things are new to me, of course. But I like ev thing very much. Your mother always gives me so mu I just can't manage it all.

Du sagst ihm, du würdest deine Mutter bitten, ihm nicht mehr so viel auf den Teller zu tun.

You: _____

Friend: Thanks – but don't let her cut down on my cake. I really love German cake.

Du sagst ihm, er solle sich darum keine Sorgen machen, und fragst ihn, ob er jetzt ein Stück möchte. Es ist noch eins übrig von gestern.

You: _____

_____

Friend: Yes, please. I'm sure I could manage a piece.

Du fragst, ob er das deutsche Fernsehen schon ein bißchen verstehen kann.

You: _____

Friend: Not very much. But I understood the American presi for a word or two until they told us what he was sa in German.

Du dachtest, er würde Deutsch in der Schule lernen.

You: _____

Friend: I do. But we haven't heard any real German yet.

Du sagst ihm, daß ihr oft Englisch von Cassetten hört. Du glaubst, daß du das englische Fernsehen schon ein wenig verstehen würdest.

You: _____

_____

Friend: You must come over to England next summer and if it's true.

(from: Good English 5, Allgemeine Ausgabe, Workbook. FRANZEN et al., 1980:12)

Appendix 2
List of speech functions

The following list is a modified version of the Waystage list of language functions (VAN EK and ALEXANDER, 1977:13-14).

Some additions to the Waystage list proved to be necessary on an ad hoc basis in order to cover functions which occur in the dialogues. All additions and changes to the Waystage list are underlined. All functions on the Waystage list are covered, with the exception of 1.3 (correcting)(see below).

Some of the Waystage functions are too general to be of very much use in describing the language of the dialogues, e.g. 1.4 (asking). The policy adopted in the lists of speech functions following the dialogues is to reserve these functions for "classic" cases, e.g. 1.4 Where are you from? (dialogue 1), 1.4 Can you tell me ...? (dialogue 6).

Some of these very general terms for functions could usefully have been applied more specifically. For example, 2.9 (expressing how certain or uncertain one is of something) includes a very wide range of structures in Waystage (cf. VAN EK and ALEXANDER, 1977:17). These structures are adequately covered elsewhere, e.g. under 3.17 (expressing an opinion) or 5.6 (making a suggestion). 2.9 has therefore been reserved for expressions actually related to certainty, e.g. 2.9 I'm sure you'd like it (dialogue 1), 2.9 We weren't too sure about (the colour) (dialogue 12).

Some speech functions on the Waystage list are in practice very similar to others. Wherever possible a distinction has been made, but 1.3 (correcting) is virtually identical to 2.2 (denying something), and has been omitted. 2.2 has been reserved for actual admission or denial of some misdemeanour or accusation (see dialogue 26) rather than straightforward negation.

Some functions refer only to familiar grammatical categories, and might just as well have been described in grammatical terms, e.g. 3.9 (expressing intention), 3.10 (inquiring about intention), which cover only the "going to" future in Waystage. As a rule these functions have been more broadly interpreted here (see dialogues 1 and 2), but it is accepted that a certain amount of overlapping between the different lists is unavoidable.

1. Imparting and seeking factual information

1.1 identifying

1.2 reporting (including describing and narrating)

(1.3 correcting) (see above)

1.4 asking

1.5 giving or asking for reasons

1.6 saying or asking if one has/has not done something

1.7 expressing or asking about a possibility, probability estimate or condition

1.8 saying yes or no

2. Expressing and finding out intellectual attitudes

2.1 expressing agreement and disagreement

2.2 denying or admitting something

2.3 expressing that one knows or does not know something or someone

2.4 inquiring whether someone knows or does not know something or someone

2.5 making or accepting an offer or invitation

2.6 declining an offer or invitation

2.7 expressing ability and inability

2.9 expressing how certain or uncertain one is of something

2.10 expressing one is/is not obliged to do something/needs or does not need something

2.11 inquiring whether one is obliged to do something/ needs something

2.12 seeking and giving permission to do something

2.13 stating that permission is withheld

2.14 inquiring about/expressing importance or seriousness

2.15 inquiring/checking/expressing if something is true or correct

2.16 checking or indicating (lack of) comprehension

3. Expressing and finding out emotional attitudes

3.1 expressing pleasure, liking, interest

3.2 expressing displeasure, dislike

3.3 inquiring about liking, dislike

3.4 expressing satisfaction

3.5 expressing dissatisfaction

3.6 expressing disappointment

3.7 expressing or inquiring about preference

3.8 expressing or accepting gratitude
3.9 expressing intention
3.10 inquiring about intention
3.11 expressing want, desire
3.12 inquiring about want, desire
3.13 expressing neutral attitudes
3.14 expressing empathy
3.15 expressing sympathy
3.16 calming someone down, cheering someone up
3.17 inquiring about or expressing an opinion
3.18 making an excuse

4. Expressing moral attitudes
4.1 apologising
4.2 granting forgiveness
4.3 expressing approval or disapproval
4.4 expressing appreciation
4.5 expressing regret
4.6 expressing indifference

5. Getting things done (suasion)
5.1 requesting others to do something
5.2 warning others to take care or to refrain from doing something
5.3 instructing or directing others to do something
5.4 offering or refusing assistance
5.5 requesting assistance
5.6 making suggestions
5.7 requesting or giving advice
5.8 requesting or giving help with language problems

6. Socialising
6.1 greeting people
6.2 when meeting people
6.3 when introducing people and when being introduced
6.4 when taking leave
6.5 attracting attention
6.6 proposing a toast
6.7 paying or accepting a compliment
6.8 expressing (good) wishes

Appendix 3

Native speaker judges

	Name	Profession	Town or city	Date read
1.	Mrs P. Beardsley	lecturer in English	London	25.5.79
2.	Mr S.A. Carter	retired headmaster	Bideford	14.9.79
3.	Mr A. Harper	University student	Leeds	5.5.79
4.	Miss B. Langley	registrar	Brighton	6.8.79
5.	Mr J.F. Matthews	senior lecturer	Brighton	23.7.79
6.	Mr P. Moase	retired teacher	Bideford	16.9.79
7.	Miss A. Payne	University student	Brighton	20.7.79
8.	Mr R. Robinson	journalist	Sheffield	7.4.79
9.	Mr M. Steer	English teacher	Leeds	3.4.79
10.	Mrs K. Whitaker	English teacher	Leeds	3.4.79

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